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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF AND PREFERENCES FOR PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

by

LESLIE RAYMOND EASTCOTT

©

A THESIS

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF AND PREFERENCES FOR PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING submitted by Leslie Raymond EASTCOTT in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the Current Perceptions of and Preferences for involvement in decision-making held by faculty members in the Faculty of Education at The University of Alberta. Information was sought in three broad categories: General Perceptions of and Expectations for Participation; The Relationship of Faculty Member Variables to Current and Preferred Responses; and The Nature of Faculty Involvement in Existing Decision-Making Structures.

A Decision-Making Participation Scale was constructed by the investigator to measure Current Perceptions of and Preferences for involvement in decision-making. The Scale also measured the degree of discipline-orientation of respondents; the actual participation of faculty in existing decision structures, and attitudes towards their present involvement. The Scale was supported by interviews, and by a document search.

It was found that formal decision-making structures have been developed to allow instructor participation in decision-making directly or by representation. However, analysis of responses revealed that respondents did not always perceive their role in decision-making in this way, and chose NONE most often in describing Current levels of involvement. Scepticism existed about the value of committee involvement as a way of involving instructors in decision-making and concern was expressed about committee effectiveness. It appeared that unless respondents could see evidence of their involvement in final decision outcomes they tended to judge their level of participation as INFORMAL. Respondents chose JOINT ACTION most often in describing Preferred levels of involvement.

Response patterns differed according to categorization by rank, sex, employment status and department. However, no one type of group membership explained totally the differences in these patterns. There was a definite tendency to equate boundaries of decision responsibility with those of the Department. Personal factors were shown to interact with organizational factors and vice versa to affect perceptions and preferences.

Faculty members reported that they were motivated to participate through professional concern, a sense of duty, self-interest, and a desire for power and prestige. They claimed that they were impeded by lack of time, time-wasting, lack of skill in decision-making and lack of interest. They claimed to act in a manner consistent with their stated preference for JOINT ACTION involvement; supported their present numerical level of involvement in committees; preferred less time involvement; and in a substantial minority of cases preferred a different type of involvement.

A number of questions for further research were identified. A model for describing decision-making

structures in a Faculty context was suggested, and included a consideration of the decision required, the decision outcome, the type of decision body, the ensuing decision strategy and the method of decision ratification. These were seen as interrelating causal factors, in determining decision processes.

Finally a model of Decision Processes in a Faculty was described. This was based on Baldridge's (1971) model, but emphasized the role of external constraints, formal position in an organization, decisions that facilitate policy implementation, and faculty member support for a collegial approach to decision-making, in determining the nature of decision processes in a Faculty of Education.

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CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

While there is extensive literature in the field of decision-making at the Faculty level in universities, most of this has been concerned with the role of faculty in the total governance pattern of the institution and the relationship this role has to a number of member variables such as job satisfaction, job morale, rank and sex, and with comparisons of instructors' and administrators' perceptions of decision-making processes.

Very little has been reported in the literature about the role and desires of faculty members in intra-faculty decision-making processes.

The literature that does exist relies for its emphasis on observation and assertion, and, not unexpectedly, presents a wide range of opinion. For example, Pfinister (1970) asserts that the instructors should have primary responsibility for matters such as curriculum, subject matter, methods of instruction, research, faculty status and the student's educational process. Arbeiter (1971:283) and others, however, observe that a decreasing organizational commitment among instructors with resultant desires to participate in the Faculty decision-making process is being replaced by a strong individual commitment to personal and disciplinary interests. Despite such claims, there has been little research support for either. Questions such as the following remain a matter of speculation and conjecture: Who should make what decisions within a Faculty? Who wants to make what decisions? What member variables influence desires to be involved or not involved in decision-making? What decision-making structures best recognize desires and/or needs to be involved or not involved in intra-faculty decision-making?

The traditional outcome of such speculation in universities has been the creation of decision-making structures which assume, for example, a professional orientation by members, an acceptance of the concept of collegiality, a commitment to organizational goals, and a desire to participate in deciding these. The basis of these assumptions has generally resided in scholarly opinion; in inference drawn from general studies of administrative behavior; and in the personal philosophy of administration held by the person or persons establishing the administrative structure.

Whether individual instructors actually reflect the desired characteristics, attitudes and commitments outlined, or are in agreement with the philosophical underpinnings, often remains uncertain.

This study investigated some of these important factors affecting the nature of intra-faculty decision-making, utilizing a case study approach.

General Statement of the Problem

The problem was stated in the following way:

What are the Current Perceptions of and Preferences for participation in decision-making of administrators and instructors in the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta? What is the extent of participation in decision-making? How are these perceptions and the extent of participation related to a number of member variables?

Specific Questions Investigated

This study was basically descriptive. Information was sought which would yield answers to the following questions:

1. What is the nature of the existing Faculty decision-making structure as perceived by the investigator?

1.1 To what extent do similarities exist between a faculty member's Perceptions of Current involvement in decision-making and the possibilities existing for involvement?

2. What perceptions of and expectations for participation in the decision-making process by faculty do faculty members hold?

2.1 To what extent do similarities exist between faculty desires for participation and their perceptions of the current extent of participation?

3. What is the relationship of faculty member variables to Current and Preferred perceptions of participation in decision-making? More specifically:

3.1 To what extent do similarities exist between Instructor and Administrator perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

3.2 To what extent do similarities exist among Departments within the Faculty regarding faculty members' perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation in decision-making?

3.3 To what extent do similarities exist between Male and Female faculty perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

3.4 To what extent do similarities exist between employment statuses regarding perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

3.5 What relationship does individual faculty members' orientation to their discipline have to their Preferred modes of participation?

3.6 What explanations are presented by respondents to justify Current, Preferred and actual modes of participation in decision-making?

4. What is the nature of faculty involvement in existing decision-making structures?

4.1 Are there differences between ranks in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

4.2 Are there differences between sexes in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

4.3 Are there differences between employment statuses in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

5. Are the member variables of rank, status, sex, Discipline-Orientation and department those most appropriate for accounting for differences of perception?

Significance of the Problem

The study is considered significant for three reasons:

1. It provides research information in an area meagrely researched to date. Although there is an extensive range of research into the participation of the work force in the decision-making process at the industrial, elementary, secondary and college education level, very little research of this sort at the university level has been reported. That which has occurred has been mainly concerned with faculty participation in governance of the university as a whole. Although literature in the field has been extensive it has generally been statements of scholarly opinion presented in essay form rather than reports of research. As such, ideas posited and negated have ranged over almost all the possibilities in the

field. Such is the paucity of empirical research that it has prompted Dykes (1968:vi) to quote Logan Wilson's (1957:12) comment that, in the United States, it is time for colleges and universities to be "subjected to the same intensive analysis and study which have been brought to bear on various forms of business and industrial enterprise." That this comment had little impact is evidenced by Palola's (1971:590) observation that he was aware of only one empirical study on the role of faculty in academic decision-making, that of Dykes (1968). A review of the literature since 1971 indicates that the situation still exists, in both the United States and Canada.

If research in faculty decisional participation is rare in university governance it is even more scarce at the intra-faculty level. Some empirical analyses of individual faculties have occurred, (e.g., Hind's, 1968, study of evaluation and professional roles in a faculty of the University of California, Berkeley) but none of the ones reviewed has been concerned with instructor participation in decision-making within a faculty.

2. Although limited to an analysis of a single faculty within a fairly large university this study represents a step toward understanding intra-faculty behavior and expectations in the field of decision-making, and it extends beyond the usual, often contradictory, academic rhetoric in the area.

3. A study of the nature of the decision-making process within a faculty, the attitudes of the administrators regarding the process, the expectations, desires and perceptions of faculty about Current and Preferred modes of involvement in decision-making and possible underlying explanations for these may provide important information relevant to the stabilization or revision of present administrative structures and processes within a faculty.

Delimitations of the Study

1. The study was concerned with investigation of the questions indicated above within the Faculty of Education at The University of Alberta.

2. The study was delimited to selected decision-making areas and did not attempt to cover all possible areas of decisional participation. However, an attempt was made to include all major decision-making areas.

3. No attempt was made to study all possible faculty member variables and their relationships to expectations about decisional participation.

Major Limitation to the Study

The study was not planned to present generalizations applicable to any population but rather to provide insights into the decisional participatory behavior of a faculty. Consequently, inferences to other populations must be judicious and cautious.

Assumptions Underlying the Study

In conducting this study the following assumptions were made:

1. That it was possible for respondents to differentiate between Current Perceptions of and Preferred levels for faculty involvement in specific decision-making areas as these apply to administrators and to instructors.

2. That the instrument provided for adequate responses to differentiate as indicated in 1.

3. That respondents could perceive distinct decision-making levels for each of the decision items used.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Academic Rank in this study refers to the position a faculty member holds as either an administrator or an instructor.

Instructor refers to a person who is employed in the university primarily for the purpose of providing classroom instruction and conducting research.

Administrator refers to a person employed primarily for the purpose of co-ordinating or supervising in an area of faculty governance.

Employment Status in this study refers to the professional position a faculty member holds within the University. In this study three such positions are considered. These are Professor, Associate Professor and Assistant Professor.

The Faculty refers to the sum of all instructors and administrators.

A Decision is defined as a general commitment to a course of action.

Decision-making is the process involved in choosing a specific commitment to a course of action.

Perceived decision-making is that type of decision-making that instructors or administrators, individually or collectively believe is being used.

Current level of decision-making is that level of decision-making perceived by individuals as presently occurring. In this study perceived levels are differentiated into several categories after the American Association of University Professors (1971:122).

1. Determination means that at this level, either individually or collectively, instructors have final authority with respect to policy and action.

2. Joint Action means that instructors and other components of the institution, especially the administration, together reach formal agreement on policy and action.

3. Consultation refers to a formal procedure providing a means for instructors to present their judgement in the form of a recommendation.

4. Discussion means there is only an informal expression of opinion from instructors.

5. None means there is no instructor participation.

In addition to the AAUP (1971:122) categorization levels of involvement were defined as Formal or Informal.

6. Formal Involvement includes as one category the levels of Determination, Joint Action and Consultation. That is, the level of faculty involvement is formally recognized in the organization's decision-making structure.

7. Informal Involvement includes the levels of Discussion and None. That is, no formal recognition is made of the faculty's role in decision-making processes.

Preferred decision-making is that type of decision-making that instructors or administrators believe should be used. In this study levels of Preferred decision-making are separated into the same categories as for Current levels of decision-making.

Decisional participation means the act of actively participating in decision-making.

Decisional saturation as defined by Belasco and Alutto (1973) is that decisional condition in which participants are currently participating at a greater level than they desire.

Decisional deprivation, also after Belasco and Alutto (1973), is that decisional condition where Current participation is less than Preferred.

Decisional equilibrium, also after Belasco and Allutto (1973), is that decisional condition where Current participation is the same as Preferred.

Rationality in decision-making refers to a decision-making state in which all resources are appropriate, all activity is functional, and all action is relevant to an optimum decision outcome.

ORGANIZATION OF THESIS CHAPTERS

In this chapter the problem studied was introduced and its significance considered. The underlying assumptions of the study, its major limitation and delimitations were outlined. Terms used frequently throughout the thesis were also defined.

In Chapter 2 the existing literature and research in the area of participation in decision-making, particularly as relevant to this study, is reviewed. The research design is described and the methodology used in data analysis is explained and justified in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4 the existing Faculty decision-making structure, as perceived by the investigator, is described. The research results are reported in Chapters 5 through 8 inclusive. The general perception of and preferences for participation in decision-making held by faculty are discussed in Chapter 5. The relationship of member variables to perceptions of and preferences for participation in decision-making is considered in Chapter 6. In Chapter 7 the nature of faculty involvement in existing decision-making structures is reported. Also discussed are the explanations made by respondents to justify their present levels of involvement. Chapter 8 is a summary of the conclusions drawn from the results previously presented. Finally, in Chapter 9, the implications of the research results for further research, for theory development and for practice are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1 several study questions were posed about which there exists little research based knowledge. There does exist, however, a wide variety of information in the general area of participation in decision-making. Much of this refers to industry, to schools, to community colleges and to universities as compared to individual faculties of a university. As this investigation was a case study of a specific faculty this already existing information is relevant in that it provided a framework for the study within which to:

1. Recognize the need for the particular study.
2. Develop the study questions identified in Chapter 1.
3. Prepare the information gathering techniques used in the study.
4. Analyse the information provided by the study.
5. Interpret the data in terms of the relevance for theory development, for the direction of further research, and for future practice in decision-making.

The pertinent information existing in the area of general organization theory, and in the specific areas of decisional participation in schools, community colleges, and universities is summarized, therefore, in this chapter. In particular, the following are emphasized:

1. What is the nature of decision-making?
2. What models exist for decision-making structures in universities?
3. What does the literature report about participation in decision-making generally, in schools, in community colleges and in universities?

In Chapter 9 these questions are reconsidered in terms of the implications of this study for decision-making at the faculty level.

THE NATURE OF DECISION-MAKING

The process and style of decision-making is crucial to any organization. As Lane *et al*. (1967:128) point out:

> ... From one viewpoint "organization" *is* a program of decisions made recurrently and concurrently at all levels and within the confines of past decisions.

Such a stance is supported by many writers. Simon (1964:1) notes that:

> The task of "deciding" pervades the entire administrative organization quite as much as does the task of "doing" - indeed, it is integrally tied up with the latter.

Hall (1972:262) supports this with his statement that "... almost every position in an organization involves some decision-making" and that there are "strategic decisions that affect the fate of the enterprise."

In an organization decision-making tends to be self-conscious, deliberate, and rational (Simon, 1964:4). How strongly any given organization reflects these characteristics in its decision-making processes may be a matter of debate. However, that they strive for these characteristics in decision-making is fairly certain.

Griffiths (1958:132) claims that the decision-making process is very similar to the problem solving cycle. He defines a six step decision-making procedure which assumes the existence of a problem requiring a solution.

1. Recognize, define, and limit the problem.
2. Analyse and evaluate the problem.
3. Establish criteria or standards by which a solution will be evaluated or judged as acceptable and adequate to the need.
4. Collect data.
5. Formulate and select the preferred solution or solutions.
6. Put into effect the preferred solution.

This analysis of the nature of decision-making is deceptively simple. Included in any thorough analysis must be a consideration of:

1. The varying abilities of administrators to identify the need for a decision.

2. The relativity of a decision. As Simon (1964:6) writes:

> ... all decision is a matter of compromise. The alternative that is finally selected never permits a complete or perfect achievement of objectives, but is merely the best solution that is available under the circumstances.

3. The hierarchical and sequential nature of decision-making and decision outcomes, i.e.,any decision influences the nature of other decisions to be taken.

4. The relationship in the decision-making process between the beliefs held by decision-makers about causation, and their preferences about possible outcomes of decisions. Thompson (1967:134) claims that the relationship influences the strategies used in making a decision. This is illustrated in its pure form in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The Relationship Between Beliefs About Causation, Outcome Preferences and Decision Strategies

		Preferences about Possible Outcomes	
		Agreement	Non-agreement
Beliefs about Causation	Agreement	Computation in Bureaucratic Structure	Bargaining in Representative Structure
	Non-agreement	Majority Judgement in Collegial Structure	Inspiration in "Anomic Structure"

Lane *et al*. (1967: 134) identify five types of commitment which influence decision-making: internal traditions; commitments to external agencies; external pressures; past decisions; and existing personnel relations. It is the last of these, i.e.,existing personnel relations which appears most relevant to this thesis, emphasizing as it does, personnel expectations of and preferences for involvement in decision-making.

Finally, Simon (1964:8-9) claims that one important organizational function is to segregate elements in the decisions of members and to establish procedures for the selection, determination and communication of these elements.

> The organization, then, takes from the individual some of his decisional autonomy, and substitutes for it an organization decision-making process. The decisions which the organization makes for the individual ordinarily (1) specify his function ... (2) allocate authority ... (3) set other limits to his choice as are needed to co-ordinate the activities of several individuals in the organization.

If Simon is accurate in his analysis some of the most important problems an administrator must face in establishing a structure for decision-making are, therefore, embodied in the questions:

1. How much autonomy should be taken from the individual?

2. How much decision-making power should be invested in organization decision-making processes compared to individual processes?

3. How much decision-making power does the individual want?

4. How much decision-making is the individual capable (for many reasons) of handling?

In other words:

5. What control should the individual have over specifying the nature and scope of his duties, determining his power to make decisions, and setting limits to his co-ordinating activities?

This study attempted to respond to this question, especially in relation to organization at a university faculty level.

MODELS FOR DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES IN UNIVERSITIES

Several models for decision-making in university organizations have been proposed which represent responses to the types of questions posed above. Their appropriateness at the faculty level, as indicated by the study, is discussed in Chapter 9.

At least four models can be identified. These are the *bureaucratic* model, the *collegial* model, the *mixed* model and the *political* model.

The Bureaucratic Model

Baldridge (1971:3) identifies several bureaucratic or formally structured elements in the university, which partly determine the nature of the decision-making structure. The existence of these elements justifies the use of the model in describing university decision-making processes. Briefly, the features identified include:

> 1. The university is a complex organization chartered by the state ... with public responsibilities.
> 2. The university has a formal hierarchy, with offices and a set of bylaws that specify the relations between those offices. Professors, instructors, and research assistants are bureaucratic officers in the same sense as deans, chancellors and presidents.
> 3. There are formal channels of communication ...
> 4. There are definite bureaucratic authority relations ... In the university the authority relations are often blurred, ambiguous and shifting, but no-one would deny that they exist.
> 5. There are formal policies and rules that govern much of the institution's work ...
> 6. The bureaucratic elements are most vividly apparent to students in the "people-processing" aspects.

Not unexpectedly, therefore, those using the bureaucratic model to describe and explain decision-making processes emphasize the rational, formal, hierarchical aspects. In this model the decision-making power vested in the individual is dependent upon the office he holds and levels of decision-making formally assigned to that office.

The Collegial Model

Three terms appear basic to any description of this model:

1. The community of scholars concept is integral to the model, with decisions not the outcome of a bureaucratic decision-making structure, but of "round-

table" management in which all members of the academic community participate fully.

2. All decisions are reached and co-ordinated through the dynamism of consensus.

3. Technical competence, i.e., the ability to perform required tasks replaces the bureaucratic official competence. In other words, competency is derived from office.

In this model the emphasis, therefore, is on a community of scholars, a company of equals emphasizing professional freedom, democratic consultation, consensus, and personal attention to people, ideas and education. The model rejects status and authority hierarchies. The decision-making power of the individual is dependent upon his professional competence in a particular decision area.

The Mixed Model

Demerath (1967:22-3) claims that neither the bureaucratic nor the collegial model alone, explains the decision structures within a university or faculty. Rather, bureaucratic and collegial elements are mixed in the structure of the organization. Although the lines of demarcation of the different elements may sometimes be blurred, generally the two aspects can be clearly identified. The bureaucratic elements, Demerath (1967:22) claims, are "... usually confined to the service departments". The collegial structure is juxtaposed upon the bureaucratic, and "... can be best seen in terms of its personnel, the faculty, who are 'key operatives' in the university". Under this model of management, and by implication, decision-making, neither faculty nor bureaucrats alone manage the university or faculty.

The decision-making power of the individual is dependent upon those elements of collegial and/or bureaucratic structure dictating the approach to a particular decision area.

The Political Model

Whereas the previously mentioned models emphasized the establishment of structures for decision-making, the political model emphasizes the dynamic processes of the decision-making act. Baldridge (1971:8-9) identifies the university as a complex, fragmented structure of miniature sub-cultures all with divergent life styles and concerns, all articulating their interests in different ways, all using pressure, power and force to influence decision outcomes.

> Once articulated, power and influence go through a complex process until policies are shaped, reshaped and forged from the competing claims of multiple groups. All this is a dynamic process, a process clearly indicating that the university is best understood as a "politicized" institution (Baldridge, 1971:8-9).

Thus Baldridge (1971:10) sees the decision-making process as one in which:

1. Conflict is natural.

2. Many power blocs and interest groups try to influence policy in accordance with their values and goals.

3. Political élites govern most decisions.

4. Decisions are negotiated compromises rather than bureaucratic orders.

5. External interest groups have considerable power.

6. There is a democratic tendency in decision-making.

Decision-making is a negotiating, bargaining and political influence process with little regard for traditional bureaucratic or collegial activities. In this model the decision-making power of the individual is dependent upon his membership in successful interest groups, power blocs or governing élites.

THE LITERATURE ON PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Several models for studying decision-making have been presented, each with different implications for the role of individual organization members, and for his decision-making power. It is relevant at this point to ask the question: What does the available literature and research say about participation in organizational decision-making, and, more specifically, about intra-faculty participation in faculty decision-making?

From a review of the literature several distinct themes emerge, each with implications for intra-faculty decisional participation.

OUTCOMES FROM GENERAL ORGANIZATION THEORY

Faculty Participation in Decision-making as a Value Orientation

For the educational institutions in Western nations, the concept of democracy in management is relevant to the proposed study, especially the implications this has for shared or representative decision-making, shared responsibility, commitment to the welfare of others, and accountability. McKenna (1961:303) comments that:

> Democratic leadership in the administration of higher education is more talked about than attained. Textbooks and articles which are concerned with the topic are dominated by the idea that the authoritarian hierarchy which has characterized the institution of higher learning should be superseded by the shared deliberations of the democratic process. Theoretically few administrators would not give verbal assent to this recommendation. In practice, however, the patterns of authority, decision-making, and responsibility make it difficult for the administrator to put his idealism into practice.

Nevertheless, the continued thrust of the "democratic process" is a causal factor in the demand for instructor participation in decision-making. It is reflected in Presthus' (1965:20-24) expectation that faculties be self-governing, Gregg's (1957:278) call for an opportunity for everyone concerned to voice his beliefs in policy questions, and in Lombardi's (1966:9-16) claim that instructor-administrator relations are an extension of society's general concern for individual maintenance of identity in ever increasing group size.

Psychological and Sociological Justifications

Barrett (1969:18-46) provides a relevant theoretical justification for instructor participation in decision-making, drawing upon a selection of general rationales from a variety of existing psychological and sociological theories. Freud's (1949:19) theory of ego involvement, expecially the concept of the ego working to bring about modifications of the external world to its own advantage; Vroom's (1964) concept of people deriving satisfaction from successful task performance regardless of extrinsic rewards; Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs especially as identified by Porter (1961), Argyris (1972) and others as more likely to be satisfied in management/administrative positions emphasizing decision-making; and Homans' (1961) "exchange" theory are all relevant in justifying the existence of instructor participation in decision-making.

Barrett (1969:18-46) sums the influence of each of the above in totality in a series of points.

1. A human organism has a series of physiological and psychological needs which he will strive to satisfy.

2. A degree of need satisfaction can be derived by involvement or participation in the decision-making

process.

3. A human's needs are organized in a hierarchy. The needs of security, love and esteem and self-actualization and their satisfaction are related to involvement in decision-making.

4. A human is involved in interpersonal relations. The more rewarding the relationships, the more involved the human becomes. The more involved, the more rewarding the interpersonal experience.

Contributions from Research in Industry

As Belasco and Alutto (1973:29) indicate, a persistent theme in the decisional participation literature has been the desirability of organizational outcomes associated with increased participation, especially in the reports of researchers in industry. Wilensky (1964), investigating worker satisfaction by ascertaining what work people would select if they could start over again, found that choices were influenced, among other things, by the degree of autonomy, control and use of abilities permitted by the present occupation. Also in non-educational institutions Ley (1966) and Telly, French and Scott (1971) have illustrated that authoritarian leadership (and thus by definition lack of worker participation in decision-making) was a major factor causing labor turnover, low goal congruence, feelings of inequity, dependence and submissiveness. The conclusions of Hackman and Lawler (1971) support the idea of personal responsibility for decisions and autonomy of behavior improving work quality. Similar beliefs are also reflected in both Walton's (1972) and Volvo's (1972) redesign of factory units.

Patchen's (1970) TVA professional employees research, Blau and Scott's (1962) employment counselor investigation and Tannenbaum's (1968) demonstration of the relationship between the legitimacy of administrative decision-making and system member involvement also contribute to a knowledge of the importance of decisional participation.

As Belasco and Alutto (1973:29-30) indicate, however, at least implicit in many of these authors' claims is the assumption that there exists a positive linear relationship between increased participation and willingness to change, interpersonal trust, productivity, job satisfaction, and administrative control, i.e., decisional participation is a phenomenon that can be measured on a single continuum from nil to maximum participation. Clearly, participation in decision-making is far more complex than this. Among the possible perspectives from which it can be considered are its form, its outcomes, its legitimacy, discrepancies between perceived and desired roles in participation, and the decisional condition (i.e., whether a person feels over involved, not involved enough, or satisfied with present involvement) of participants. Research relating to some of these as reflected in educational institutions is referred to at a later point in the review.

Contributions from Human Resources Theory

The human resources school of thought also provides support for the idea of involving members in decision-making processes. The basic assumptions underlying this school are that all organizational members represent virtually untapped resources; that they are all capable of responsible, self-directed and self-controlled behavior; that superiors are obligated to encourage ideas and suggestions from subordinates; and that self-direction and control should be continually broadened as members' experience and ability grow.

Miles (1965:151) provides a summary model of the human resources approach to participative leadership. Briefly, the features of the model relevant to this topic include:

1. Attitudes Toward People
    - (i) As well as belonging, being liked and respected people desire to contribute, create and achieve.
    - (ii) The majority of the work force is capable of exercising initiative, responsibility and creativity.
2. Kind and Amount of Participation
    - (i) Create an environment in which full potential of subordinates will be tapped.
    - (ii) Subordinates should participate not only in routine matters, but in important decisions as well.

(iii) There should be continual expansion of the areas over which subordinates exercise self-direction and self-control.

3. Expected Outcomes
   (i) Improvement of quality of decision-making and performance.
   (ii) Subordinates will exercise responsible self-direction and control in establishing objectives they helped establish.
   (iii) Subordinate satisfaction will improve.

Adapted from Miles (1965:151)

The critical point of the Miles' model is that the creative contributions which subordinates make to decision-making, direction and control, directly improve organizational output.

Similar types of conclusions about the efficacy of participation in decision-making can be drawn from Herzberg's (1960) motivation-hygiene theory and McGregor's (1960) Theory Y management.

Herzberg (1960) discovered that factors accounting for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction cannot be plotted on a conceptual continuum. Rather, two clearly identifiable and separate levels of needs are apparent. "Hygiene" needs include salary, status, security and working conditions. If these low order needs are not met dissatisfaction occurs. "Motivation" needs focus on the nature of work offering psychological growth opportunities for achievement, recognition and responsibility. "Motivation" will only improve when the individual has the opportunity to influence factors affecting his work. Among these factors will be the opportunity to share in relevant decision-making.

McGregor's (1960) Theory Y represents a reaction to what he regards as outmoded assumptions about the nature of man, viz.,he is lazy, does not want to work, is unwilling to take responsibility, and responds only to external motivations such as money and good physical working conditions. In Theory Y management procedures, the assumption is made that man is internally motivated, wants to do interesting work, and will practise self-control and self-direction if committed to the organization's objectives.

Power and Control

Kelly and Konrad (1972:11-12) note that the concepts of functional power and control are interwoven with the human resources model of organization, in explaining the place of worker participation in decision-making in organizations. From the human resources perspective the traditional zero-sum concept of power and control in management is replaced by the belief that control is additive and expanding. By involving people in creating their own controls the total amount of control and power is increased. The power of knowledge supersedes position power, with decision-makers being those with the required expertise. To utilize the resources of personal opinion and individual creativity and skill, participation in deciding organizational objectives is encouraged. As Kelly and Konrad (1972:12) point out:

> Outcomes of such participation are cited as: decreased alienation, improved decision-making, increased involvement and commitment to an organization, a growing sense of member control over bureaucracy, improved organizational adaptation to societal change, as well as an enhanced opportunity for individual psychological growth within an organization.

SCHOLARLY OPINION REGARDING INSTRUCTOR PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Although the role of instructors in decision-making is a topic of perennial debate, much of what is written is no more than opinion, expressed in essay form, and based on conclusions drawn from personal observation in particular institutions. As is to be expected, the opinions which will be cited below range from strong support for the idea of instructor participation in decision-making to equally strong negative reaction. The contradictory nature of much of this opinion illustrates the inadvisability of accepting any single statement as an accurate perception of the value, or lack of it, of instructor participation in decision-making. Nevertheless, a review of the beliefs expressed does provide an indication of the parameters of the problem and importance of participation in decision-making. In this review much of the material refers to the more general area of faculty participation in academic governance, and to the administration of the university in totality. In the absence of particular references, and evidence to the contrary, the assumption is made that much that is written is equally applicable within specific faculties.

Many writers are concerned with pressing developments occurring within universities, affecting existing organizational structures, and deriving from a variety of sources, student, academic and structural. From these concerns emerge a number of implications for decision-making models in universities.

Increasing Complexity of Universities

Wharton (1971) notes that increasing complexity of university structure can be linked with a growing climate of distrust to explain the development of more formal, complex and inflexible decision-making processes. Universities a decade ago, he claims, were relatively homogeneous and unified. Today they are institutions with an increased potential for conflict. This conflict is much more open to public view and has led, according to Wharton, to a public conviction that internal disorder in universities is so great that decision-making has ground to a halt. This conviction is strengthened by the action of interest groups that fail to gain their way within institutions appealing to external agencies for support. Whether public perception is accurate or not is immaterial. What is important is that it can lead to public interference in university life, especially via the medium of the budget.

A form of governance needs to be established, Wharton continues, which encourages compromise, co-operation, establishment of priorities and common stances on common decisions and protection of the integrity of the decision-making process and those making decisions (Wharton, 1971:242). This is more likely to occur when all those affected by decisions are involved in the making of the decision.

Faculty Discontent and Militancy

Golatz (1973:4), Schulman and Makken (1973:38-9), and Mayhew (1969) all account for college faculty discontent and militancy in terms of a professional identity crisis. The realization by instructors that administrators have increased greatly in numbers and are exercising control over their professional lives, combined with the professional status aspirations of instructors has resulted and is resulting in collective action/ bargaining by professors. Golatz (1973:457-8) proposes three hypotheses regarding influential factors causing the movement of instructors toward collective bargaining. Inherent in these hypotheses is sufficient justification for greater involvement of instructors in decision-making.

1. Teacher militancy is most likely to lead to

concerted action and collective bargaining where a faculty oriented to their profession inhabits an organization emphasizing bureaucratic structures.

2. Teacher militancy is more likely to lead to concerted action short of a collective bargaining outcome, where a professionally oriented faculty inhabits a professionally oriented organization, or where a faculty oriented to the organization inhabits an organization oriented to the profession.

3. Teacher militancy is least likely to lead to concerted action and a collective bargaining outcome where a faculty oriented to the organization inhabits a bureaucratically oriented organization.

As Golatz (1973) illustrates, the form of instructor participation in decision-making is related to staff orientation and to the existing organizational climate.

Stroup (1966:Ch. 4) suggests that universities reflect many aspects of Weber's paradigm of bureaucracy, e.g., they are chartered by the state, and have a formal hierarchy; formal channels of communication; bureaucratic authority relations and formal policies and regulations. Golatz's comments take on real significance in this context, emphasizing the importance of establishing decision-making procedures in which instructors are involved if instructor discontent and militancy are to be avoided.

Collegiality

This much discussed approach to administration in universities has been emphasized by many writers (e.g., Goodman, 1962; Millett, 1962; and Parsons, 1947). It emphasizes technical competence in decision-making whereby authority derives from expertise rather than position; the administration of affairs in round-table discussions by communities of scholars; personal interaction between members; and dynamic consensus in reaching decisions. This method of decision-making is claimed to overcome the impersonality and meaninglessness of administration in large universities.

The assumptions underlying collegiality are invalid for some, however, despite the considerable supporting rhetorical literature. Dykes (1968:40) claims that many academics, in making a plea for a return to collegial government, are measuring "their role in decision-making today against a romanticized perception of the past." As Baldridge (1971:6) writes, the call for the community of scholars approach emphasizing the professional's ability to make his own decisions free from organizational constraints can only remain as a utopian objective. Furthermore, it is an objective based on the questionable assumption that decisions are arrived at through discussion consensus. Baldridge (1971:7-8) denies this, pointing out that any decision-making process in a university must grapple with power plays, conflict and rough and tumble politics. Increasing size of institutions further increases the complexity of this process.

Changing Faculty Values and Loyalties

Arbeiter (1971) and Clark (1960) note changing instructor values and loyalties as placing new strains on administrative processes in universities. Most notable in this change has been a renewed devotion to one's academic discipline, and consequent weakening of instructor dedication to university affairs. Arbeiter (1971:283) suggests that campuses have now become temporary havens for itinerant scholars who are more concerned with issues associated with their own scholarly field. Dykes (1968:v) makes a similar observation that many academics prefer not be become involved in affairs of governance, concentrating rather on research contracts and consultantships. Parsons (1971:489), in commenting on what he perceives as the loose social organization of a university, draws a similar conclusion.

> The most important things a typical individual member does, do not concern the interests of the organization as a whole in any very direct sense. They concern his teaching relations with a small minority of the total student body, the pursuit of his own research interests, which are inevitably in only one of the many fields of knowledge involved in the university, and his active collaboration with a small circle of colleagues. Even the department, at the faculty level, tends to be a highly decentralized body, members of which act corporately only in a very limited sector of their functions, especially those having to do with two matters, namely, their responsibility for a

> teaching program and the all-important process of recruitment of new members. Except in crisis situations, even all faculty matters, to say nothing of all university matters, are relatively marginal and secondary to the primary professional interests of members (Parsons, 1971:489).

Mayhew (1971:497), in an assessment of a paper presented by Parsons (1971), while in opposition to the conclusions Parsons draws from his observations, makes essentially the same analysis of individual instructors' loyalties and values when he comments that:

> As to the loyalties of academic man, they seem generally as venal as those of other humanity. Let the federal government provide the resources for a professor to do as he wishes and loyalties go there. ... So important to academic man is the time to elaborate childhood patterns of play that he willingly accepts lower compensation and will give his loyalty to whatever bureaucratic agency will help him gain more time.

The difference between Parsons and Mayhew exists in the way they interpret what this means for administration. For Parsons, it seems to justify the existence of "collegial associationalism." For Mayhew it explains why faculty need to become more sensitive to and involved in decision-making processes aimed at serving public needs.

Conflicting Perceptions of Events

Pfinister (1970) suggests many of the problems of academic governance lie not so much in the actual decision-making processes, as in the predisposition of the members of academe to interpret the same events quite differently. Although many tend to blame communication for governance difficulties Pfinister (1970:431) claims that people hear each other quite well. However, they have different interpretations of what is seen and heard.

> ... faculty and administration may live on the same premises, but more often than not they operate on rather different premises.

This results very often in different perceptions of the same events. In these circumstances the concept of a collegium by which issues "are resolved in the course of polite conversations" (Pfinister, 1970:432) is inappropriate to management in universities. Universities, it is claimed, require some form of efficient management function which still allows for instructor participation.

Faculty Capabilities to Share in Decision-Making

Pfinister (1970:438) also argues that faculties in general are not capable of decisive action in decision-making, pointing to their "inability to come to a decision, but their ability to debate it to the nth degree" (1970:438). He claims that:

> The open minded tentativeness characteristic of good scholarly investigation many times comes into conflict with a necessity to resolve, however imperfectly, immediate issues.

Barzun (1968:128-9) believes that the very nature of the decision-making process in a university, and especially the continual need for immediate decisions, is antithetical to the nature of the faculty member.

> Scholars as committeemen are likely to become impatient with the niggling routines, as well as impatient with their colleagues; while on larger

> questions both the committee and the large council are hampered by the very virtues of scholarly men. A scholar wants all the evidence before he reaches a conclusion; he is not to be hurried into a snap judgement.... an able faculty group will want a semester to decide what has to be done next Thursday. ... Complicated minds are just what a faculty must consist of, and it is no discredit to them to acknowledge that they are handicapped in transacting business.

Parsons (1971:494) claims that the nature of faculties also impedes effective decision-making. He feels that faculties are too divided and decentralized by the nature of their own functions to take a major collective responsibility for faculty affairs. Mayhew (1971:498) concurs, noting that those few who have attempted action to protect their own affairs within universities have failed miserably, mainly as a result of their inability to muster a united supporting force.

Mash (1972:288-90) writes in the same vein, arguing that increased sharing in governance has led to a decline in its effectiveness. Mash (1972) makes several claims about faculty impotence in governance.

1. Positions of institutional decision-making are being forced upon instructors with little understanding outside their own discipline. Sometimes there is little interest in governance either.

2. Instructors become overburdened with heavy committee responsibilities, reducing their effectiveness in both teaching and committee work.

3. When decisions are made instructors fail to

communicate these.

4. Instructors rarely seek or use input from those they are supposed to represent in meetings, indulging instead in their own personal brainstorming.

5. Vested interests are usually more represented within committees.

6. As a result of the above points innovation is rarely possible.

Mash suggests that the solution is not instructor participation in decision-making, but strong administrators who are decision-makers, who consider all significant input, and after decisions are made communicate the rationale for these. Administrators must be accountable for every decision. This is very similar to Schimmel's (1972) "conditional decision-making" approach.

RESEARCH ON DECISION-MAKING IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

If a level of comparability between universities and other educational institutions is recognized then some research results significant to this study can be outlined.

Participation in Decision-Making at the Elementary and Secondary School Level

A considerable body of research exists, which, while not specifically designed to investigate universities, has analysed the nature of participation in decision-making at the elementary and secondary school level. Research relevant to the topic includes that of MacKay, Gosine, Sharma, Simpkins and Friesen, Massé, Corriveau, and Belasco and Alutto.

MacKay (1964) examined the relationship between organizational structure and teacher performance as measured by pupil achievement. Two findings are significant for this research. Where decision-making was centralized teacher satisfaction with the school was significantly lower. As a corollary, pupil achievement also tended to be lower. Similarly one of Gosine's (1970) findings indicated that "the satisfaction of teachers in low bureaucratic schools was significantly higher than that of teachers in bureaucratic schools."

Sharma (1963) reported the reaction of teachers on "who does make" or "who should make" various organizational decisions. He claims that both British and American teachers favor increased autonomy in schools and prefer a higher degree of involvement in decision-making than they presently perceive as the case. In a similar fashion Simpkins and Friesen (1969) suggest, after a study of actual and desired participation in decision-making in Alberta schools, that school teachers desire greater participation in decision-making as individuals in some areas and as a staff in others. They presently see themselves as important decision-makers but only in the classroom. Substantial shifts in involvement as individual teachers were desired, especially in the decision areas of Curriculum Content, Texts and Materials and Arranging for Parent Visits. As a staff, more involvement was wanted in the decision areas of Allocation of Money, Teaching Load and Rules and Regulations. Simpkins and Friesen (1970:3) summarize their findings by stating that:

> Teachers in the study desired a form of participation in school affairs which diffuses authority among those directly affected by the decisions.

Massé's (1969) findings also support this concept, with teachers expressing a desire for greater collegial involvement, especially in professional matters. One feature of the teachers' desires was the lack of favor expressed for either complete autonomy or consultation. In terms of the methodology of this thesis, they desired Joint Action. An important implication easily transferable to the university setting was the positive relationship discovered by Massé between the desire for increased participation and teachers' professional orientation.

Corriveau (1969) reported a discrepancy between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the amount of teacher participation in decision-making. Similar to Olson's (1968) tertiary education findings, Corriveau reports that the principals also preferred less teacher involvement than the teachers desired.

Belasco and Alutto (1973:28) point out that decision participation can be studied not only in terms of absolute levels of participation but also by focussing on discrepancies between current and preferred levels of participation, and on variegated patterns of decision-making requirements according to different decisional areas. In a study very relevant to this topic, Belasco and Alutto gathered data from teachers employed in two school districts in Western New York State. Using these data they tested five hypotheses.

> Hyp. I One can effectively differentiate between teachers who are decisionally deprived, saturated and at equilibrium.
> Hyp. II Individuals at decisional equilibrium will exhibit greater organizational commitment than those characterized by decisional saturation and deprivation.
> Hyp. III Individuals characterized as decisionally deprived will rate their principals and superintendents as less influential than would those teachers categorized as saturated or at equilibrium.
> Hyp. IV Individuals characterized by decisional equilibrium will perceive less role conflict than those categorized as decisionally deprived or saturated.
> Hyp. V Individuals characterized as decisionally deprived will exhibit greater attitudinal militancy than those saturated or at equilibrium (Belasco and Alutto, 1973:33).

They concluded that:

1. There are differences in the personality/demographic and organizational characteristics of people typified by patterns of decisional deprivation, saturation or equilibrium.

2. There is no significant degree of difference in organization commitment between decisionally deprived

subjects and those not so deprived.

3. Individuals who desired greater decisional participation than currently enjoyed tended to see top administrative officials as currently exercising high decisional control.

4. Teachers characterized by decisional equilibrium did not perceive significantly less conflict than those typified by the other decisional conditions.

Several important implications emerge from this study with relevance for decision-making in educational institutions. As Belasco and Alutto (1973:38) state, it implies that the desire for increased participation is not equally and widely distributed throughout all faculty. Some enjoy more participation than they desire; others desire more than they enjoy. Secondly, it brings into question the validity of scholarly opinion quoted earlier regarding an apparently simple relationship between commitment to an organization and the desire to participate in decision-making. Beguiling as this idea appears, in this research it was not supported. However, other opinion, viz., that there is a relationship between attitudinal militancy and decisional participation, is supported by this research.

Participation in Decision-Making at the College Level

Considerable study has been conducted at the junior and four year college level in the area of decision-making in university governance. To some extent this was probably stimulated by the nation-wide study in the United States (American Association for Higher Education, 1967) which isolated these colleges as major sources of faculty discontent. Much of this is centred around faculty desire for greater opportunity for participation in the formulation of policies that affects its professional status and performance.

Relevant results of several studies of decisional participation are illustrated in Table 1.

The major points that emerge are:

1. Instructor participation appears to have a positive influence on job satisfaction and morale.

2. Instructors desire participation in decision-making, especially in areas affecting them professionally, usually at a greater level than they presently perceive as the case.

3. There is a general tendency for instructors to perceive less instructor participation in the decision-making process than do the administrators.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL

There appears to be a paucity of research, with an emphasis on systematic inquiry, on participatory decision-making at the individual instructor level.

Table 1: Research in Faculty Participation in Decision-Making in Higher Education

Researcher	Area of Study	Findings Briefly Summarized
Niland (1964)	Administration/ instructor conflict. California Colleges	47% of teachers dissatisfied with decision-making process. 5% felt sufficiently consulted when policy affected them.
Mathews (1967)	Participation in decision-making. 6 California Colleges	Staff more satisfied in colleges perceived to be most participative. The greater the instructor perception of participation the greater the perception of effectiveness. The greater the instructor perception of participation the higher instructor-administrator rapport rated.
Case (1968)	Role of faculty senates. California Colleges	Faculty senates (i.e. faculty representative participation) approved.
Taylor (1967)	Prediction of faculty job satisfaction. 14 Texas Colleges	Single most important predictor of faculty perception of policies and practices.
Murphy (1968)	College morale, Michigan Colleges	Morale varied directly with perceived existing involvement in decision-making, and inversely with the level of involvement desired.
Day (1971)	Conflict over control. 6 Alberta Colleges	Significant differences in 25/132 possible cases in perception of instructors compared with administration. Administration more satisfied with procedures than instructors, Instructors perceiving authoritarian control patterns most dissatisfied.
Barrett (1969)	Participation and job satisfaction in North Carolina Community College system.	High expectation level by instructors to participate. The more respondents perceived themselves participating in decision-making the higher their job satisfaction.
Garrison (1967)	Faculty opinions regarding faculty participation in governance. U.S. Nationwide sample of Junior Colleges	Faculty desire an active part to play in formulating policies which affect them professionally. Opinions not unanimous.
Olson (1968)	Attitudes toward faculty participation. 4 Washington Colleges	Administrators desired less instructor participation in decision-making than did instructors.
Riess (1970)	Institutional attitudes. 81 California Colleges	Similar to Olson. Instructors perceived less instructor participation in 22 of 23 decision areas than did administrators.

The case study approach, e.g., as illustrated in Dill (1971), has been used to describe situations, analysing the behavior of participants and groups and extrapolating implications for governance from the observations. It has generally been concerned with questions about who rules and how, is there a dominant ruling class, how representative are rules, what types of tensions and conflicts are provoked by various forms of academic governance, accountability, etc., as reflected in the specific case. Implications so drawn can indicate important issues related to modes of university decision-making, but the universality of the implications is a doubtful quality.

Two important findings relevant here are those of Mortimer (1971) and Yuker (1971).

Mortimer, in describing the academic senate structure at Berkeley, Minnesota, Fresno and Pennsylvania State, noted among a variety of other findings that gladiatorial or oligarchical patterns of participation prevailed, that appointment on committees often depended on personal contacts, and that sex and rank discrimination on committees were apparent. As well some departmental imbalance existed on committees.

Whether this reflects deliberate policy or is an outcome of the wishes of faculty as expressed by their activating or failure to activate their right to participate is unclear.

A report by Yuker (1971) on attendance at an important faculty meeting implies for that institution at least, that the apparent "discrimination" of rank and sex may in fact reflect the actual willingness of instructors to participate. Attendance at a meeting to consider changes in Faculty Statuses relating to the structure and function of the University Senate was only 49% of those eligible. Forty-two percent of eligible voters voted. There was a linear trend in participation. The higher the rank, the larger was the percentage who participated. Similarly, the rate of participation was higher for males than for females.

In other words, what may first appear as discrimination in decision-making by rank and sex, may be no more than a representation of differential desires to participate on the part of individual instructors.

A development of the case study approach has been the construction of models for application to specific cases as a way of understanding the activities and the nature of academic governance as a process. Baldridge's (1971:8-16) political model and its use in the analysis of a number of critical decisions in New York University in 1968; in the elevation of Portland State College to university status; and in the growth of the April Third Movement is a classic example. However, while this type of model identifies the nature and course of particular processes and isolates specific roles at any given point in time, it does little to clarify the impact of modes of administrative behavior especially related to the decision-making process on instructor attitudes and expectations toward participation in governance. Further, only through comparative studies of the results of applying the model to a variety of situations can any conclusions be drawn about the relative quality of different modes of participative governance in tertiary institutions. In fairness, it must be acknowledged that such models are not structured for this purpose.

Three studies of faculty participation in decision-making at the university level, especially as related to governance and institutional planning, are relevant in this review.

Dykes (1968) conducted one of the first empirical studies of faculty participation in academic decision-making. Studying the faculty of the College of Liberal Arts and Science of a large Mid-Western university, he sought to answer five questions.

1. What is the faculty's "proper" role in decision-making?

2. What is the level of satisfaction of faculty with its role in decision-making?

3. Why do faculty members participate?

4. What impedes faculty participation?

5. How do faculty members participate?

Several conclusions were reached after analysis of 106 personal interviews (Dykes, 1968:38).

1. There exists a pervasive ambivalence in instructor attitudes toward participation in decision-making. Asserting the essentiality of faculty participation, instructors also responded by placing it at the bottom of their priority list.

2. Instructors were generally discontented with their level of participation in decision-making, and saw any reduction in direct participation as a threat to their influence. Lack of communication, and the influence of non-academic personnel were frequently cited as causes of high levels of discontent. A general nostalgia for a romanticized form of collegiality was evident.

3. Instructors participated for seemingly paradoxical reasons. The three most cited reasons were a sense of personal duty, protection of faculty interests and a desire for a voice in decisions affecting respondents. More established members of the faculty seemed more likely to regard participation as an obligation than younger faculty members. There was also a tendency to denigrate those who became involved in decision-making, and evidence existed of discrimination by rank, with younger faculty not having equal opportunity.

4. Impediments to instructor participation were seen as time consuming nature, time spent on inconsequential matters, indifference of instructors,

procrastination in decision-making, increasing complexity of the university, and growing orientations to disciplines as opposed to organizational commitment.

5. Few participatory devices were seen as really providing an opportunity for meaningful participation in decision-making. The departmental staff meeting and the department head were most regularly identified as useful.

6. Dykes also noted a discrepancy between what instructors perceived their decision-making role to be, and what it was in reality, with resultant suspicion and distrust; a tendency for instructors to see the administration as adversaries competing for a limited quality of influence; and a very simplistic academician's view of the distribution of influence and power in the university, overestimating the power held by the administration, and dimly perceiving constraints upon the administration from within and without.

The AAUP in 1967 and 1969 surveyed all chapters of the association in an attempt to determine present practices of faculty participation in college and university government and to compare them with the standards set forth in a 1966 Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities. The questionnaire (1971:122-124) contained questions pertaining to the areas of faculty status, academic operation, academic planning and policy, financial planning and policy, professional duties, organization of faculty agencies, student affairs and faculty-board communication. It was sent to the president of the institution and to the chapter officers. To answer the questionnaire, respondents were asked to specify the perceived level of faculty participation in the general categories of faculty determination, joint action, consultation, discussion, none.

The median response to each question was slightly below the level of consultation. There were no marked differences between institutional types nor strong relationships between geographical areas. This is an interesting difference to the Belasco and Alutto (1973) school district findings reviewed earlier.

Similar to Dykes' (1968) conclusion, the AAUP noted a tendency for the administration to report estimates of participation at a substantially higher level than did their chapters. This gave some credence to the idea that instructors and administration perceive the same conditions in different ways, and seems to support the claims of Dykes (1968) and of Pfinister (1970) mentioned earlier.

Palola et al. (1971:590) studied faculty involvement in planning at a number of colleges and universities, seeking to determine how well "academic rhetoric about faculty responsibility in curricular planning and in the formulation of broader educational policy matches with actual behavior." Interviews and document research from 80 colleges and universities in California, Florida, Illinois and New York provided the data. Relevant findings for this review include:

1. In forty-four of eighty colleges instructors were separated from administration in existing or special committees, resulting in a tendency of each to polarize attitudes about the other.

2. Instructor involvement in planning was judged as light in forty-eight colleges, and primarily on a reactive basis.

3. Where instructors did participate the reasons seemed to derive from administrative concerns or external pressures, rather than an instructor belief in the importance of planning, or in the belief that planning was an avenue of improving research and teaching (Palola et al., 1971:597).

4. Instructor reluctance to contribute was attributed to such factors as failure to see planning as an instructor task, preoccupation with instructor conflict, and with their discipline, and the lack on the part of instructors of an institutional perspective, and a perception of external hindrance to their efforts in planning. These are similar to those cited by Dykes (1968:24).

5. Although no significant differences by functional type were noted the hindrance of traditional disciplinary orientation to meaningful discussions

across specialty areas was cited predominantly in universities.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

Several conclusions can be drawn from the literature review presented to this point which are relevant to any discussion of research into the nature of decision-making structures within a faculty.

From General Organization Theory

1. Participation in decision-making can be justified in terms of the opportunity it provides for worker self-actualization.

2. Increased worker participation in decision-making has resulted in desirable organizational outcomes as judged by researcher's involved.

3. Participation in decision-making enhances worker opportunity to satisfy their motivation needs.

4. Participation in decision-making is based upon a concept of man as a creative, responsible, self-controlling, self-directing man, with a commitment to the organization's objectives.

5. Participation in decision-making assumes a concept of control as additive and expanding.

6. However, much of the research on participation in decision-making has regarded participation as

measurable along a single continuum from high to low, which may be a denial of its actual complexity.

From Scholarly Opinion

Scholarly opinion in the area of faculty decision-making clearly indicates the diversity of stances on questions such as who should decide what? Although most of the opinion presented in this review refers to faculty participation in general, several themes emerge which appear relevant to a study of decision-making within a faculty.

1. There are many who believe that the bureaucratic trend of university governance can only be averted by a return to collegial forms of decision-making.

2. There are those who believe that to avoid instructor unrest, and militancy, and to overcome problems caused by the increasing complexity of institutions some form of instructor participation in decision-making, probably participatory governance is essential.

3. There are those who believe that instructor involvement in governance is foundering because of instructor ineffectiveness in the decision-making process, and who call for strong administrative leaders who publish their decisions and rationale for these, and who are accountable for such decisions.

From Research in Schools

1. Teachers appear to favor a higher degree of

participation in decision-making than they presently perceive as existing.

2. There seems to be a discrepancy between teachers' and principals' perceptions of the number of opportunities existing for teacher involvement in decision-making.

3. Although a majority of studies have tended to regard desires for participation in a general fashion on a linear scale it would seem that desires for decisional participation vary according to personality, demographic and organizational characteristics.

4. There appears to be a positive relationship between dissatisfaction with decision-making processes and attitudinal militancy.

From Research in Post Secondary Institutions

Research on instructor participation in decision-making at the university level identifies several important features.

1. Instructors desire participation in decision-making, but are reluctant to activate this desire.

2. There appears to be a trend towards greater participation as rank increases. Males tend to be more involved than females.

3. Instructor participation occurs not so much because of any conviction that it may assist in the improvement of teaching and research, but because of a

variety of reasons from organizational commitment to protection of personal interests.

4. Dissatisfaction with time wasting procedures, inconsequential matters, increasing university complexity and strong faculty orientation to specific disciplines are frequently cited as impediments to decision-making.

5. There is a clear discrepancy between instructor and administration perceptions of the possibilities for instructor participation.

6. Actual instructor participation in decision-making, at least in American universities, is light.

THE STATE OF THE RESEARCH AND THE STUDY PROBLEM

Clearly considerable information exists about participation in decision-making. Participation appears to be justified in terms of its influence on personnel development, and on maximization of organization outcomes. It seems to be expected by most participants in educational organizations, although at differing levels according to the nature of the decision tasks. In university decision-making, however, it is uncertain that faculty are willing, or capable of activating this desire effectively.

No evidence exists to indicate whether the research evidence is equally applicable to the faculty organization level. The information referred to in this Literature Review would suggest that in decision-making at the faculty level:

1. The political model is most appropriate in describing faculty decision-making processes.

2. Decision-making processes will be limited by less than total rationality in the process.

3. Expectations for participation will be high.

4. Instructors will expect greater levels of involvement than administrators would prefer.

5. There will be a generally accepted belief in the importance of collegiality.

6. Instructors will be unlikely to be as active in decision-making as they claim they would like to be.

7. As rank increases there will be greater participation.

8. Males will tend to be more involved than females.

9. Participation will be limited by frustration with time wasting and by a strong orientation to one's discipline by instructors.

10. There will be some doubt about faculty members' skills in decision-making.

These forecasts can only remain as speculation however, until some research evidence is produced which supports or denies them. It was from these predictions emerging from the general literature that this study developed, and from which the general problem and specific questions to be investigated were formed.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the nature of the decision-making process was discussed, with special emphasis being placed on the role of the organizational member in the process, and on the function of the organization in involving members in or segregating them from decision-making. Several models of decision-making structure were described, and the influence these have on the autonomy of the individual's decision-making noted. A number of themes were identified in the existing literature on intra-faculty decisional participation and several implications were drawn for the involvement or non-involvement of faculty in decision-making. These were then related to the defined problem of this study.

The next chapter presents the methodology of the study. The population studied is defined, the research instruments described, and the methods of data analysis justified.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter identifies and justifies the major research techniques used, analyses the responses to these techniques and describes the methods implemented to analyse the data obtained.

GENERAL RESEARCH APPROACH

The research study analysed the decision-making structures of a single Faculty of Education. In the analysis, emphasis was placed on Current Perceptions of and Preferences for involvement in the structures. An attempt was made to compare these perceptions and preferences to opportunities apparently open for decisional participation in existing Faculty decision-making structures, and with faculty response to these opportunities. On the one hand the research had elements of the case study approach, in its attempt to describe the existing structures and behaviors. On the other it had elements of more traditional research techniques in its attempts to identify differences between attitudes and perceptions and to detect the relationship of these to specific member variables. A synthesis of the two approaches occurred in an attempt to explain those features highlighted through the case study analysis in terms of the differences identified through responses to questionnaire items.

The nature of this approach is clarified in the remainder of this chapter.

THE STUDY POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE

The Population and the Sample

The population for the study consisted of all instructors and administrative staff of the Faculty of Education of The University of Alberta.

Instructors included all full-time instructional staff. Assistant Deans were classified as instructors for this study.

Administrative staff included all administrators appointed for the major purpose of administration within the Faculty. Included in the category were the Dean, Associate Deans, Department Chairmen, and Co-ordinators who had an official time commitment to administrative tasks of more than 50%.

One hundred and forty faculty members were identified as possible respondents. This did not represent the total faculty, however, as several members were unavailable, having taken sabbatical leave. Also excluded were members not holding positions leading to tenure.

The intent was to study the total population. This had important ramifications for the choice of statistics used in the data analysis and will be discussed more fully later in the chapter.

Although responses were sought to a questionnaire from all members of the Faculty of Education, only a twenty percent sample of respondents was chosen for interview.

RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Information was gathered by the use of three techniques: the questionnaire, the structured interview, and a search of documents.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

An Instructor-Administrator Decisional Participation Perception Scale was developed by the investigator. For the most part the instrument, its structure and items were derived from a variety of recent research instruments, especially those of the American Association of University Professors (1971), Dykes (1968), Barrett (1969), Day (1971) and Riess (1970). Modifications and additions to the questionnaire were made as a result of advice solicited from and offered by various faculty members and colleagues. See Appendix A for an example of the questionnaire.

1. PART A: The Personal Information Section was used to determine the sex, age, formal education, and professional rank of the respondent.

2. PART B: The Current and Preferred Perception Scale was a Likert-type scale used to measure the state of the decision-making process currently existing and preferred to exist in the Faculty, as perceived by the respondent, in relation to the decision items indicated in Table 2.

The decision items were identified and categorized according to a Task taxonomy of faculty functions. The taxonomy was very similar to that of the AAUP (1971), which was operationally defined in terms of generic descriptive words used in The Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities (1966). However, the AAUP's eight areas were reduced to the seven indicated in Table 2 by combining some areas into one category, (e.g., Professional Duties and Academic Operations into Academic Operations), by extending the parameters of another category (Organization of Faculty Agencies became Intra-Faculty Organization) and by the addition of a new category (Faculty-Environment Interaction).

Table 2: Decision-Items: Current and Preferred Perception Scale

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- FACULTY RECRUITMENT
  - Appointments of Academic Staff
  - Appointments of Administrative Staff
  - Selection of Dean and Department Chairmen
- FACULTY STATUS
  - Promotions
  - Dismissals
  - Evaluation
- ACADEMIC PLANNING AND POLICY
  - Courses and Programs
  - Admission Requirements
  - Learning Resources
  - Research Funds
  - Physical Facilities
  - Numbers of Staff
- ACADEMIC OPERATIONS
  - Student Allocation
  - Class Size
  - Teaching Assignments
  - Timetabling
  - Instructional and Evaluation Practices
  - Course Pre-requisites
- FINANCIAL PLANNING AND POLICY
  - Secretarial Services
  - Equipment and Supplies
  - Long and Short Range Budgetary Planning
- INTRA-FACULTY ORGANIZATION
  - Committee Establishment
  - Appointment to Committees
  - Modification of Administrative Structures
  - Rules and Procedures
  - Student Governance
- FACULTY-ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION
  - Community Service Activities
  - In-Service Activities
  - Information for Prospective Students
  - Public Relations
  - Fund Seeking

The decision to use a Task approach, as compared, for example, to an Open Systems approach or an Organization Sub-system Functions approach, was based upon two factors.

(i) It was felt that most faculty, and especially those unfamiliar with organizational theory, would be more inclined to evaluate intra-faculty decision-making in terms of the tasks in which they were involved as faculty members.

(ii) Those studies conducted to date in this area at post-secondary educational institutions have used similar taxonomies. As a result, comparison of results with those of other researchers would be facilitated.

Although a Task approach was used in final category identification, in checking the scale as a whole to ensure that all aspects of organizational functioning were at least represented, criteria for evaluation were derived in the following ways:

(i) An Open Systems approach, i.e., are decision-making elements associated with input, throughput, and output represented?

(ii) A Katz and Kahn (1966) Organization Sub-system Functions approach, i.e., are decision-making elements associated with the productive, maintenance, adaptive, managerial, reward and sanction, and supportive functions of an organization represented?

Thus it was possible to categorize questions in the

PART B scale by Task, by Sub-system Functioning, and by Open System Functioning. See Appendix B for such classifications. These evaluation criteria led to the conclusion that the task areas were reasonably complete, and that no serious omissions had occurred.

Analysis in this study was restricted to analysis of decision-making by the Task category.

In both the Current Perception Scale and the Preferred Perception Scale faculty members were asked to judge that level of instructor involvement in decision-making that they currently perceived as occurring and that they preferred to occur according to five categories. These categories, which are defined in Chapter 1, were DETERMINATION, JOINT ACTION, CONSULTATION, DISCUSSION and NONE. While not a perfectly continuous scale, each of the categories seems to represent a progression in the level of faculty involvement from nil to total. Further, especially with JOINT ACTION, CONSULTATION and DISCUSSION there appears to be a progression in the quality of recognition given to the instructors' expressions of opinion relating to decision-making in a given decision area.

The categories chosen had extensive pre-testing in that they had been used in several studies prior to this one, e.g., the AAUP Survey by Committee T (1967 and 1969), and Riess (1970). Altogether these studies involved 1497 respondents, all instructors or administrators in post-secondary educational institutions. Only one of the research reports noted that respondents had any difficulty in interpreting the intent of the categories. This was in the trial survey (1967) conducted by the AAUP. The categories used in the present study were, however, based on categories modified on the basis of this by both the AAUP and Riess, neither of whom reported difficulties in their research reports. Similarly, no difficulty was reported in interpretation of categories by a small pilot group who completed the questionnaire prior to the final survey for this research.

However, future researchers using these categories should note that five respondents in this study reported having some difficulty in interpreting the categories. While the problem is valid for the respondents, how valid it is as a weakness in the questionnaire is debatable. The problem for the respondent centred around defining the role of committees in decision-making. The questionnaire did not require this, however. The respondent should have been concerned with determining how he judged his role in decision-making. e.g., if participation was perceived by the respondent as taking place through committee representation, did he perceive the committee acting for him as giving him JOINT ACTION participation, CONSULTATION participation, NONE participation, etc. Interestingly, this is very similar to the problem the AAUP noted in the pilot study:

> The only ones that stand out were those marked "does not apply - determined by the governor or legislature". Now this is a reason and not the answer; if the governor or legislature determines some item ... then clearly the faculty does not participate in this decision and the answer should be : NONE (Pardee, 169:184).

In future studies, if this system of categories is used it is suggested the requirements for responding to the categories be explained more clearly in the preamble to the questionnaire.

It is unlikely that the problem had a great impact upon the results. If the study had been concerned with Current Perceptions or Preferred Perceptions only, then maybe the impact would have been greater. However, the study was more concerned with shifts of perception from Current to Preferred. That this instrument was successful in defining such shifts for every group measured is clearly illustrated in the Results chapters. This indicates that respondents had little difficulty in distinguishing between their perception of current occurrences and their preferences.

3. PART C: The Discipline-Orientation Scale required a response to four items, and was an attempt to measure the respondent's commitment to a discipline as compared to his organizational commitment. The scale was based on Wilensky's (1964) professional discipline-orientation scale. Item 4 was added to the original scale to assist in differentiating between the

professional priorities of individual instructors. The scoring method is described in the data analysis section of the chapter.

The underlying purpose of this scale was to identify the discipline-orientation of respondents as reflected in a high professional identification and as demonstrated by an orientation towards outside groups of colleagues, in a desire to give competent objective technical service of which outside colleagues would approve, and in an accent on the full use of personal skills (Wilensky, 1964). This can be compared, Wilensky suggests, with a careerist orientation in which respondents identify highly with the organization's incumbent leadership, are oriented toward a career within the workplace hierarchy, and want a chance for social mobility, reward and recognition in the local community.

Consequently this scale emphasized orientation to a community of scholars, and department colleagues, research publication and professional development. Responses indicating orientation towards the local administration, Department Chairmen and administrative tasks by definition were regarded as showing a low level of discipline orientation.

4. PART D: The Personal Action and Attitude Scale was designed to determine the respondent's actual behavior in decision-making over the preceding term. Features investigated included membership on committees,

percentage of Faculty, Department and Committee meetings attended, submissions to committees and activity on long range planning committees, and attitudes towards present involvement in committee structures.

Respondents were also asked to select a response that they believed most closely described their opinion of the value of the action they have taken in decision-making during the academic year. The items from which respondents could choose in this section represented a compilation of responses that research in the area of total university governance patterns had shown were regularly made by interviewees in describing their involvement in decision-making processes. The research of Dykes (1968) and Palola (1971) was especially relevant here. The responses were chosen to permit expression of a wide range of opinion regarding the value of involvement in decision-making processes, e.g., from cynicism to a belief of the value of involvement in improving the quality of decision-making and of professional development; from pleasure in participation to involvement as an annoying necessity.

Validity of the Instrument

As Guilford (1965:471) points out:

> ... validity is a highly relative concept. If the question is asked about any particular test, "Is this test valid?" the answer should be in the form of another question, "Is it valid for what?"

The questionnaire used in the study had several purposes.

1. To identify faculty members' perceptions of the current level of instructor involvement in decision-making.

2. To identify faculty members' preferences for involvement in decision-making.

3. To obtain demographic information regarding respondents.

4. To measure individual respondents' orientation to their discipline.

5. To obtain information regarding respondents' attitude toward their present involvement in committee work.

6. To obtain information regarding respondents' present levels of involvement on committees.

The question of validity, therefore, was essentially one of determining whether the respective parts of the questionnaire allowed the respondents the opportunity to respond as outlined above. As Mouly (1970:253) indicates, with a questionnaire:

> It must be recognized that though the whole instrument is oriented toward the whole problem, the questionnaire is comprised of specific and relatively independent questions, each dealing with a specific aspect of the overall situation. In a sense then, it is the validity of the items rather than the total instrument that is under consideration.... On the other hand, that the validity of the individual items must be considered does not negate the fact that the questionnaire must have a unity and validity of its own with respect to the topic under investigation.

The actual procedure of validation of the questionnaire concerned itself with several questions:

1. Will the questionnaire yield the data necessary to answer the questions posed in this investigation?

2. Does each question relate to the topic of investigation?

3. Are the questions and directions clear and unambiguous?

4. Should any items be added to or deleted from any part of the questionnaire?

5. How can the questionnaire be improved?

6. More specifically, are any of the decision-making areas selected unnecessary?

7. Have any important decision-making areas been omitted?

There were several stages to this validation procedure:

1. As mentioned earlier many of the items were selected from previously developed scales prepared to measure similar variables. Thus many of the items and the categories had already undergone several checks for relevance to the topic, and ambiguity. See for example, the AAUP (1967) pre-test questionnaire and Riess's (1970) Pasadena City College pilot study.

2. Upon preparation of the initial draft of the questionnaire it was submitted to two Faculty of Education staff members who were asked to review it in terms of the questions outlined above.

3. A revision followed and the revised edition was presented to a doctoral class of seventeen students and two professors who also reviewed it in terms of the validation questions outlined above.

4. The third revised edition was then submitted to the researcher's Supervisory Committee, resulting in some further modification.

5. The modified edition was given to a pilot group of five professors who were asked to complete the questionnaire and indicate any difficulties encountered. The completed questionnaires were checked to see if the instrument did differentiate in the desired fashion as indicated earlier in this chapter. The researcher was satisfied with the instrument's success in this regard. Some modifications, mainly to instructions and wording changes resulted from this stage.

6. A final review by the Supervisory Committee resulted in the addition of two further items related to Faculty-Environment Interaction.

Success of the Validation Procedure

Generally, the validation procedure appeared to serve its purpose, although further research using this instrument should consider three problematic aspects of this questionnaire emerging from its use in this study.

1. A few respondents had difficulty in interpreting the categories in terms of committee decision-making.

(This has been discussed more fully on p. 67).

2. Two respondents reported a perceived ambiguity in the response they were expected to make in questions regarding "other" departments. Were they to respond for themselves or as they perceived it "ought" to be for instructors in other departments? (They were expected to respond for themselves.)

3. An underlying assumption of this questionnaire was that respondents had a clear perception and understanding of the decision-making structure of the Faculty and consequently would be able to respond appropriately to all items. However, this appeared unwarranted as several non-respondents claimed that inadequate knowledge of the processes made it extremely difficult for them to respond in a valid fashion. Several respondents also commented on this problem. As one of the interviewees put it:

> I don't think I will be able to help you all that much. I have only been here three years and I am not yet very involved in the decision-making processes.

He did complete the questionnaire, however.

Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability is the accuracy or precision of a measuring instrument (Kerlinger, 1965:430). Any test of reliability is concerned with the stability and accuracy of the instrument as a predictor, and with the relative absence of errors of measurement in the instrument.

Guilford (1965:446) points out that:

> There is no one best way of estimating r_{tt}. The method employed will depend upon one's purpose and the meaning and use one wishes to attach to r_{tt}.

Thorndike (1967:227) suggests that there are four possible procedures for obtaining a reliability co-efficient.

1. Administration of two equivalent tests and correlation of the resulting scores.

2. Test and retest of the same test and correlation of the scores.

3. Subdivision of a single test into two equivalent sets of items and correlation of the scores.

4. Analysis of variance among the individual items, and determination of the resulting error variance.

The latter two of these assume homogeneity of test items. However, the questionnaire used in the research can be defined as a heterogeneous test as compared to homogeneous test. Many of the component items of the questionnaire are relatively independent and non-additive. This is especially so in PARTS A, C, and D. PART B might appear from superficial observation to be homogeneous because it is measuring a perception of, and attitude towards decision-making processes. However, each item is relatively independent in that it is conceivable for scores to fluctuate widely as attitudes vary from item to item. The claim that PART B is in fact heterogeneous is supported by a factor analysis using a varimax rotation of the responses to the forty-nine items on the Current and on the Preferred scale. While not all items are independent of all others, four clusters of items are identified on each scale with each of these clusters being relatively independent of the others.

An example of selected items in Table 3 indicates the heterogeneity of responses.

Table 3: Factor Loadings for Selected Items on Current and Preferred Scales

Item	Factor Loading 1	Factor Loading 2	Factor Loading 3	Factor Loading 4	Factor Loading 5
Current 7	-0.126	.721	.171	.328	.026
Current 23	.017	-0.105	.261	.229	.716
Current 32	.041	.275	.066	.737	-0.059
Current 50	.098	.213	.626	-0.003	.310
Preferred 29	.681	.060	-0.042	.089	.150

As the questionnaire is heterogeneous and therefore not factorially unique a high index of internal consistency cannot be expected (Guilford, 1965:450). Similarly, the relative independence of items and in some cases, groups of items, and their consequent non-additivity makes split-half reliability out of the question (Mouly, 1970:255).

The only meaningful test of reliability for this type of questionnaire appears to be the test-retest variety. This is supported by Mouly (1970:255) who states that:

> The test-retest method is the only feasible approach to the establishment of the reliability of the questionnaire.

and by Guilford (1965:450) who comments that:

> The only meaningful estimate of reliability for a heterogeneous test is of the retest variety. If, by chance, a heterogeneous test were developed, each item of which correlated with a criterion and yet did not correlate with any other item, the internal-consistency reliability would be zero. Yet the retest reliability might be substantial or high.

Even so, the value of this form of reliability measure for questionnaires is uncertain. Horst (1966:278) suggests that the temporal nature of much of the data with which the questionnaire deals makes test-retest measures extremely difficult to use in these situations. Mouly (1970:255-66) supports this, and also suggests that inconsistencies in questionnaire responses are typical of all personal communication, not only peculiar to specific questionnaires. This is highly relevant in this study which was generally concerned with the personal communication of individual perceptions and preferences.

The Reliability Test

Despite the shortcomings of test-retest reliability outlined above, an estimate of reliability for PART B of the questionnaire was obtained by this measure.

The test-retest was restricted to PART B for several reasons.

1. The results of this section were most relevant to the majority of the study.

2. PART A referred only to demographic data.

3. PART C was part of a scale previously assessed by Wilensky (1964).

4. PART D dealt mainly with fact and was only relevant to the specific Faculty studied. It was not generalizable to other faculties. This was an important factor as the test-retest was applied to another Faculty.

The questionnaire was administered to an independent sample of twenty respondents in the Faculty of Education of another institution. All respondents had been members of the Faculty for more than one academic year. There was a 100% response to both the test and retest. An elapsed time of 9 weeks was allowed between the initial test and the retest.

Analysis of Reliability Test Results

Because of the manner in which the data were categorized in five discrete categories the non-parametic measure of correlation normally appropriate to nominal data , the contingency coefficient (Siegel, 1956) was judged to be inappropriate as a measure of the stability of performance on the test and retest.

The chi square (X^2) test, as described by Popham and Sirotnik (1967:284) was used, therefore, to test the following null hypothesis.

Hypothesis:

There is no difference between the obtained frequencies on the first test and the obtained frequencies on the second test for:

1. Total Current responses.
2. Total Preferred responses.
3. Total Decisional Condition responses.
4. Current responses for each decision area.
5. Preferred responses for each decision area.
6. Decisional conditions for each decision area.

Table 4 indicates the probability related to the null hypothesis for each category. At the .05 level of significance the results suggest that only in the cases of Total Preferred responses, Preferred Faculty Recruitment, Preferred Academic Planning and Policy, and Financial Planning and Policy Decisional Condition can the null hypothesis be rejected. At this level of significance it can be assumed that the remaining responses on each category were drawn from a common population.

In the case of Preferred Faculty Recruitment it is relevant to note that the retest was conducted almost immediately following a series of decisions within the

Table 4: Probability Related to Null Hypotheses Testing Questionnaire Reliability

Variable	x^2	df	p
Total Current Responses	4.62	4	$>.30$
Total Preferred Responses	19.66	4	$<.001$
Total Decisional Condition Responses	0.09	2	$>.95$
Current Faculty Recruitment	4.55	3	$>.20$
Current Faculty Status	0.82	4	$>.90$
Current Academic Planning & Policy	2.24	4	$>.50$
Current Academic Operations	0.98	4	$>.90$
Current Financial Planning & Policy	7.01	4	$>.10$
Current Intra-Faculty Organization	3.28	4	$>.50$
Current Faculty-Environment Interaction	2.82	4	$>.50$
Preferred Faculty Recruitment	14.18	4	$>.001$
Preferred Faculty Status	8.62	4	$>.05$
Preferred Academic Planning & Policy	9.94	4	$>.02$
Preferred Academic Operations	5.05	4	$>.20$
Preferred Financial Planning & Policy	8.92	4	$>.05$
Preferred Intra-Faculty Organization	5.14	3	$>.10$
Preferred Faculty-Environment Interaction	3.76	4	$>.30$
Faculty Recruitment Decisional Condition	2.567	1	$>.10$
Faculty Status Decisional Condition	1.22	1	$>.20$
Academic Planning & Policy Decisional Condition	0.028	1	$>.80$
Academic Operations Decisional Condition	1.46	1	$>.20$
Financial Planning & Policy Decisional Condition	7.86	1	$>.001$
Intra-Faculty Organization Decisional Condition	1.215	1	$>.20$
Faculty-Environment Interaction Decisional Condition	1.80	1	$>.10$

Faculty related to accelerated promotion, movement through salary barriers, and appointment of new staff. Preferences tended to be for greater involvement in the retest than in the first test. Such a change in preferences may have been influenced by these decisions.

The differences in total Preferred responses may reflect the changeability of preferences over time as a result of changing circumstances, as well as perhaps reflecting the inability of the test to measure preferences at a given point in time.

In the case of Financial Planning and Policy Decisional Condition no obvious explanation of the difference in response patterns is apparent. However, in the Faculty to which the test and retest were administered most faculty members appear to be far removed from decision-making related to finance. It may be that the differing decisional conditions are a reflection of faculty's failure to establish any firm preferences for procedures in the area.

No explanation is apparent for the case of Academic Planning and Policy.

Nevertheless, for each of the four cases cited above, the possibility of low reliability must be acknowledged. The explanations presented for each merely indicate a possible source of the difference, and do not deny the possibility of unreliability.

Implications of the Results of the Reliability Test

The results of the test-retest imply the following:

1. Current Perceptions as measured by this questionnaire tend to remain consistent over time.

2. Decisional Conditions, as measured by this questionnaire, tend to remain consistent over time with the exception noted above.

3. Preferences, and especially the exceptions noted above, are less likely than Current Perceptions and Decisional Conditions to remain consistent over time. In interpreting the preferences reported in the remainder of this thesis it must be remembered that these are measured at a given point in time and may be prone to change. Using these results to forecast for the future would be unwise. This should not necessarily be construed as a criticism of the technique used in the study, which aimed at measuring and comparing current perceptions and preferences at a given point, rather than as they change over time.

Questionnaire Returns

It is often pointed out that questionnaire studies are regularly restricted by a high percentage of non-returns. Travers (1964:297) claims:

> A questionnaire of some interest to the recipient may be expected to show only a 20 percent return, even when conditions are favorable. If non-respondents are contacted a second and a third time, the return may be increased to 30 percent. Only rarely does it reach the 40 percent level.

Similarly, Kerlinger (1965:397) notes that:

> Responses to mail questionnaires are generally poor. Returns of less than 40 or 50 percent are common. High percentages are rare. At best, the researcher must content himself with returns as low as 50 or 60 percent.

Measured in absolute terms, this study had typical problems of non-returns, although not to the extent suggested by either Kerlinger or Travers. Table 5 indicates that the total percentage response to the questionnaire was 75%, and that the total percentage of usable responses was 71.4%. The table also indicates the percentage return of usable responses by the member variables of rank, sex, age, employment status and department.

Relative to responses in other studies conducted in post-secondary educational institutions, however, and to "average" returns for questionnaires generally, the percentage return for this study rates very favourably. For example, Mouly (1970:256) reports Shannon's (1948) finding of an average 65 percent return "... for reputable questionnaire studies reported in a sample of theses, dissertations and professional articles ..."

Further, a combination of circumstances peculiar to this particular study militated against an extremely high percentage return.

1. The questionnaire was administered within four weeks of the end of the academic year. This was considered essential by the researcher as it was felt that attitudes

Table 5: Response to Questionnaire

	Number	Percentage
Expected	140	100
Actual	105	75
Usable	100	71.4

	Response Usable	Total Possible	Percentage
Department			
Elementary Education	21	35	60
Secondary Education	22	27	81.5
Educational Foundations	13	19	68.4
Educational Administration	16	16	100
Educational Psychology	22	32	68.7
Industrial and Vocational Education	6	11	54
Total	100	140	71.4
Employment Status			
Professors	37	42	88
Associate Professors	50	71	70.4
Assistant Professors	13	26	50
Lecturer	0	1	0
Total	100	140	71.4
Rank			
Administrators	12	14	85.7
Instructors	88	126	70
Total	100	140	71.4
Sex			
Male	87	119	73.1
Female	13	21	61.9
Total	100	140	71.4
Age			
26 - 30	1	1	100
31 - 35	19	27	70.4
36 - 40	21	34	61.5
41 - 45	15	20	75
46 - 50	15	18	83.3
51 - 55	14	17	82.3
56 - 60	9	16	56.2
> 60	6	7	85.7
Total	100	140	71.4

toward, and perceptions of, decision-making processes may well differ after a year's involvement with them, from, for example, impressions after the summer break. However, this meant that faculty were required to respond to the questionnaire at a time when they were heavily involved with end-of-term assignments and final examination assessment.

2. Soon after the questionnaire was circulated several departments were involved in a change of office area. This resulted in a number of "lost" and "forgotten" questionnaires in the initial questionnaire circulation.

In an attempt to build up the proportion of questionnaires returned, each non-respondent was contacted by letter. A second follow up was then conducted by telephone. These methods resulted in an increase in returns from 64% to 75%.

Table 6 lists the percentage of usable return of questionnaires sent to the faculties of post-secondary institutions in ten studies. Despite the circumstances mentioned above the returns of this study, as compared to nine of the ten cases reviewed, were superior by percentage. It should be noted that many of the studies researched far larger samples and therefore even though percentage returns are smaller, actual responding numbers were far larger than in this study. Of course, by definition, non-responding numbers were even larger still.

Table 6: Percentage of Usable Returns of Questionnaires Sent to Post-Secondary Institutions

Researcher	Date of Study	Sample	% Return
Barrett	1968	North Carolina Community Colleges	65
Riess	1969	California Community Colleges	60.6
Day	1970-1	Alberta Community Colleges	75.7
Kelly	1972	Dawson Community College	66
Baldridge	1968	New York University	40
Gross	1964	American Universities	40.4
Taylor	1957	University Departments	52
Lewis	1964	A Northeastern State University	56
Hill and French	1966	5 State Supported Colleges	52
Hartnett	1968	University Trustees	52.5
Eastcott	1974	Alberta Faculty of Education	71.4

Representativeness of the Responding Sample

Taking the 100 usable returns, 71.4% of the 140 submitted to faculty, a question arises regarding how representative the 100 respondents were of the 140 possible respondents. If particular categories of faculty members' attitudes were consistently under-represented or over-represented in the responses then the data could be distorted.

To gauge the representativeness of the obtained sample several null hypotheses were tested using the chi square (X^2) test, as described by Popham and Sirotnik (1967:284). These null hypotheses were as follows:

1. The obtained frequencies stratified by department will be in the same proportion as the total possible frequencies stratified by department.

2. The obtained frequencies stratified by rank will be in the same proportion as the total possible frequencies stratified by rank.

3. The obtained frequencies stratified by employment status will be in the same proportion as the total possible frequencies stratified by employment status.

4. The obtained frequencies stratified by sex will be in the same proportion as the total possible frequencies stratified by sex.

5. The obtained frequencies stratified by age will be in the same proportion as the total possible frequencies stratified by age.

The level of significance for the rejection of each was set at .05. As Table 7 indicates, in no case did the level of significance reach a point to justify the rejection of any of the null hypotheses.

Table 7: Probability Related to Null Hypotheses

Variable	X^2	df	p
Department	1.661	5	$> .8$
Employment Status	1.966	2	$> .3$
Rank	.253	1	$> .5$
Sex	.245	1	$> .5$
Age	1.075	6	$> .98$

This suggests that while the percentages of respondents were less than the total possible percentages, no department, rank, sex, employment status or age group was either significantly over-represented or under-represented in the obtained sample.

One of the major problems of non-returns is that the refusal to return the questionnaire may represent an attitude toward the study topic not represented in the questionnaires returned. The researcher made contact in person, by letter and by telephone with a 33% sample of non-respondents in an attempt to ascertain if any single underlying factor seemed to motivate the lack of response, and if this factor had relevance to the topic at hand. From the faculty contacted no unitary pattern emerged to explain the non-response. Table 8 lists the categories of motivations advanced.

Table 8: Factors Motivating Non-Response to Questionnaire

Motivating Factor	Number
Overlooked. Promised completion but failed to do so.	5
No time.	3
Questionnaire will provide no useful information.	2
Fears of identification despite guaranteed anonymity.	1
Questionnaire "priorised". Will do if have time.	1
Refused to discuss matter.	1
Total	13

THE STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Interviews were conducted with Department Chairmen plus a fifteen percent random sample of the population. Altogether, a total of twenty-eight interviews (twenty percent of the population) were conducted. Both questionnaire respondents and non-respondents were included in the sample.

Source and Purpose of the Interview Questions

Seven questions were asked during the interview (see Appendix C). These were developed by the researcher for three purposes: to provide information which might help explain questionnaire responses; to develop an understanding of how administrators and instructors describe existing decision-making structures; and to act as a further check on the validity of the questionnaire responses. Consequently, topics included a description of existing decision-making structures, and sought statements about the interviewee's attitude in general towards participatory decision-making, limits to the extent of participation, motivation to participate, impediments to instructor participation, characteristics of people heavily involved in Faculty decision-making, and the opportunities for faculty member involvement in decision-making.

Response to the Interview

All members of the original sample selected, except for one Department Chairman, agreed to be interviewed. However, two selected interviewees failed to keep their appointments and alternates were selected to replace them.

Interviews varied in length from twenty minutes to two hours according to the amount of information offered by individual interviewees.

DOCUMENT RESEARCH

In addition, several categories of documents were available which provided relevant information on existing structures for decision-making; membership patterns on various decision-making bodies; the nature of decisions taken at different faculty levels; and individual and group attitudes toward existing Faculty decision structures. Included in the available documents were:

1. Faculty Council meeting minutes for 1974.
2. Long Range Planning Committee meeting minutes.
3. Long Range Planning Committee reports.
4. Individual Department meeting minutes.

DATA ANALYSIS

Four major statistical tools were used in the data analysis.

1. The Mode and Frequency Distribution

The study was mainly concerned with how people scored on a series of categories of a variety of items, and how, for many of these items, their scores changed from Current to the Preferred scales. The mode and frequency distribution were chosen as the appropriate descriptive statistical techniques, therefore, to analyse the following:

(i) Differences between Current and Preferred levels for all member variables.

(ii) Levels of decisional deprivation, equilibrium or saturation for all member variables.

(iii) Directions of shifts in perception from Current to Preferred scales.

(iv) Participation in decision-making processes as differentiated by all group member variables.

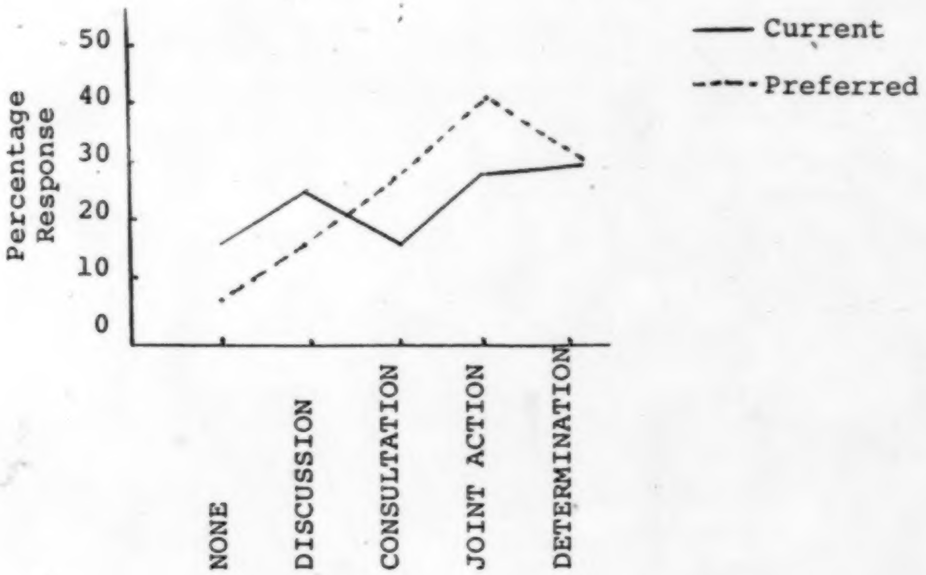
(v) Attitudes towards involvement in present decision-making structures as differentiated by all member variables.

Although relatively crude, the mode and frequency distribution were judged superior to the mean and techniques using the mean as the basis for statistical computation. Use of the mean would have masked a number of trends that the use of frequency distributions clearly identified. For example, Figure 2 presents the mean, modes and frequency distribution for instructors' responses to the category Academic Operations.

Allocating NONE, DISCUSSION, CONSULTATION, JOINT ACTION and DETERMINATION the respective weights of 1 2 3, 4, 5 (as for example did the AAUP, 1970, and Riess, 1969), instructors perceive a mean current level of participation of 3.187, or just above the level of CONSULTATION. However, a review of the frequency distribution indicates that CONSULTATION was the level least chosen by respondents, and that there were two distinct levels of participation chosen (NONE-DISCUSSION and JOINT ACTION-DETERMINATION). Similarly, on the Preferred scale the mean was 3.652 or between CONSULTATION and JOINT ACTION. However, the majority of respondents scored on JOINT ACTION and DETERMINATION. Finally, the difference between mean Current and mean Preferred levels implies a generalized desire for increased participation. Actually it is more likely, as indicated by the frequency distribution and the decisional condition data that those who already perceived themselves as heavily involved wished to retain that position, and those who did not perceive this, probably wished to attain that level of involvement.

Figure 2: Academic Operations - Current and Preferred Responses by Instructors

Mean Current : 3.187
Mean Preferred : 3.652



Measurement of Decisional Conditions

Conditions of decisional deprivation, decisional equilibrium and decisional saturation were assessed by comparing the level of involvement currently perceived by a respondent as existing with his preference for involvement. If he desired greater involvement than presently perceived for a decision item then decisional deprivation was judged to exist. If the respondent desired less involvement than he currently perceived himself as having then decisional saturation was judged to exist. If preferences and perceptions were the same then decisional equilibrium was judged to exist.

Table 9 illustrates an example.

Table 9: Example of Decisional Deprivation, Saturation, and Equilibrium Scores

Item	Current					Preferred				
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Appointment of Faculty Dean	✓					✓				
Dismissal of Staff					✓		✓			
Evaluation of Instruction		✓							✓	

1 NONE
2 DISCUSSION
3 CONSULTATION
4 JOINT ACTION
5 DETERMINATION

In this example the response to the item Appointment of Faculty Dean indicates a condition of decisional equilibrium. The response to Dismissal of Staff indicates a condition of decisional deprivation. The response to Evaluation of Instruction indicates a condition of decisional saturation.

Tests of Significance

No tests of significance, e.g., the Chi-Square Test, were applied to the findings as they were judged to be inappropriate, the total population, not a random sample, having been surveyed. As Borg and Call (1963:289-90) point out:

> Perhaps the most common and serious misinterpretation of the test of significance is to confuse the level of significance (i.e. the p value) of the research results with the practical and theoretical significance of the research results.
> ... the test of significance is concerned with the inferences that we wish to make from sample statistics to population parameters. Thus a test of significance is made when we wish to determine how probable it is that differences we have found between samples will also be found in the populations from which they were drawn.

Borg and Call (1963:290) continue by using an example to demonstrate that when differences within a population are identified the use of tests of statistical significance are meaningless because they are true differences, rather than sample differences.

2. Multiple Group Discriminant Analysis

The multiple group discriminant analysis was used to identify the dimensions of group differences on the Current and Preferred scales of PART B of the questionnaire.

Cooley and Lohnes (1962:116) describe discriminant analysis as a :

> ... procedure for estimating the position of an individual on a line that best separates classes or groups. The estimated position is obtained as a linear function of the individual's m test scores. Since one "best" line may not exhaust the predictive power of the test battery in distinguishing among the classes additional discriminant functions ... may be fitted.

Tatsuoka (1971:162-3) elucidates this point when he states that:

> ... although we started out by seeking to maximize the discriminant criterion, we obtain several discriminant functions, the first of which has the largest possible discriminant criterion, and each of the others has a conditionally maximal discriminant criterion value. It is in this sense, then that discriminant analysis reveals the dimensions of group differences. By this technique we find, simultaneously, the dimension along which maximum group differentiation occurs; the dimension along which is observed the largest group differences not accounted for by the first dimension, and so forth.

This method of analysis reduces the dimensionality of space in which to describe group differences (Tatsuoka, 1971:163). This is supported by Cooley and Lohnes (1962:116) who point out that:

> ... the multiple discriminant analysis has the advantage that it often leads to a dramatic reduction in the predictor space's dimensionality without substantial loss of information.

For example, in this study, comparison was made between the departments in the Faculty regarding their Current and Preferred scores on each of the seven decision areas. There were six departments, each to be compared with the other on fourteen scores. As is illustrated in Chapter 6, however, the multiple discriminant analysis reduced the differentiating dimensions to five and ranked the departments' scores on each of these dimensions of functions. Once the dimensions have been identified the problem of deciding how many of the dimensions to use arises. When the sample being treated is random then a test of significance is available which enables the researcher to determine the number of discriminant functions that are meaningful at a given level of significance. However, as this study used the total population, any difference was regarded by the researcher as being a true difference (see the earlier discussion on this point). Thus each discriminant function identified was taken as an accurate discriminant of group differences. For each analysis however, a subset of the computed functions that accounted for 85% of the discriminating power of the test battery was selected (after Cooley and Lohnes, 1962:118). In the example referred to above this reduced the number of dimensions to three.

The group differences analysed using the multiple discriminant analysis included departments, ranks, sexes, employment statuses, and the groups identified by the obverse factor analysis (see section on Obverse Factor Analysis).

3. Correlation Coefficients

Correlation Coefficients were calculated in an attempt to identify relationships between individual mean Current and Preferred levels of decision-making and individual discipline-orientation.

The discipline-orientation scale was scored as indicated by Wilensky (1964). For question 1 a score of three was assigned where one of the following was most important and the second was mentioned: colleagues in own department or colleagues in one's discipline. A score of two was allocated where one was mentioned as most important, but the other was not. A score of one was given where one or both were mentioned but not as most important. Where neither was mentioned zero was the score. For example, the respondent who checked Students and Department Chairman, and left all remaining choices unchecked was given a score of zero for question 1.

In question 2 where technical tasks, e.g., research, publications and autonomy or service and recognition from colleagues, profession or discipline were all mentioned a score of three was allocated. Where technical tasks (i.e. research and publications) and either of the other categories was mentioned a score of two was given. Where only technical task was mentioned a score of one was allocated. Mention of none of the above scored zero The respondent referred to above wrote: "Freedom to develop professional interests and research." Because research and autonomy were mentioned a score of two was allocated.

In question 3 Thorough scored three, Partial two and Glances Through, one. The respondent referred to as an example checked Thorough and scored three.

In question 4 one of the following as most important and the other as second scored three: on research and on preparation of publications. A score of two was allocated to mentioning one as most important but not the other. A score of one was allocated where one or both was mentioned, but not as most important. Zero was scored when neither was mentioned. The respondent referred to as an example checked both research and publications as most important and committee work as important. A score of three was allocated. Thus the respondent had a total score of eight.

For the scale, possible scores range on a continuum from 0 - 12. Actual scores ranged from 2 - 11.

4. The Obverse Factor Analysis

The obverse factor analysis is also known as an inverted or inverse factor analysis or Q-technique, and was used to identify groups of respondents covarying in their scores on the items in PART B. Fruchter (1954:176) describes the Q-technique as "...the correlation of a series of persons over a population of measures" and claims that:

> If two persons answer a series of questions or rank a series of stimuli similarly, they will be highly correlated. The factors derived from Q-technique (obverse factor analysis) have persons loaded on them and each factor represents a hypothetical person of a given "type".

Thus, in this study, the Q-technique was used to ascertain if the responses to PART B could be explained in terms of group memberships different from those determined by department, rank, employment status and sex. In identifying the position of an individual on a varimax rotated factor matrix several criteria were set:

(i) A respondent was regarded as being "factorially pure" if he loaded highly on one factor, loadings were close to zero on at least two other factors and low to insignificant on the other(s).

(ii) Where respondents loaded significantly on more than one factor, they were assigned group membership with other respondents scoring similarly on the same combination of factors. Combinations were assessed where one loading was high or moderately high and the other(s) in the combination moderate, and the remainder insignificant.

Loadings were classified as high, moderate, low or insignificant according to Fruchter (1954:151):

> Loadings of .2 or less are usually regarded as insignificant, loadings of .2 to .3 as low, .3 to .5 as moderate, .5 to .7 as high, and above .7 as very high. This of course is an arbitrary classification....

Interview Responses and Document Search Materials

In addition to the techniques outlined above considerable information was revealed by interview responses and document search material techniques. This was:

1. Collated.

2. Categorized according to the research questions outlined in Chapter 1.

3. Used in the data analysis as supporting or non-supporting evidence, the findings to be presented in combination with the results of the questionnaire.

4. Used in the development of a model of the decision-making processes of the Faculty.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the research methodology was described. Emphasis was placed on the nature of the sample; the types of research instruments; the methods used to validate them; responses to the questionnaire; and methods of data analysis employed. Justification for the use of the specific methods of data analysis was considered at some length, with important emphasis on the influence the study of a total population has on the choice of statistical methods.

The study was identified as one which had elements of the case study approach (e.g., the study of a single population) and survey research (e.g., the questionnaire to gather expression of attitudes and preferences for involvement in decision-making). With the exception of the Multiple Discriminant Analysis the statistics used were descriptive and presented and analysed in the form of frequency distributions and modes. Response to the survey questionnaire compared more than favourably with responses recorded in a majority of similar studies, while the interviews proved to be fruitful sources of information.

The next four chapters report the research results gathered and analysed by the techniques described in this chapter. Chapter 4 will describe the existing intra-faculty decision-making structure as perceived by the investigator.

CHAPTER 4

THE EXISTING FACULTY DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURE

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the nature of the existing formal Faculty decision-making structure is described and some of the difficulties associated with such a description are discussed. The purpose of this discussion is to provide a base from which to compare and analyse the perceptions and preferences of academic staff for participation in Faculty decision-making. This will be reported in later chapters.

In defining the formal decision-making structure of the Faculty, it must be acknowledged that discrepancies almost certainly exist between what can be described as the formal structure, what is perceived by different faculty members as the formal structure, and what is the actual decision-making structure. For example, a formal organization chart describing the decision-making structure may differ from what members believe the actual decision-making structure to be. How actual decisions are made may differ again from what is described by a formal chart, and what is perceived by organization members. The remainder of this thesis is concerned with such discrepancies between perception and reality. However, for purposes of description, comparison and analysis of faculty perceptions it is appropriate at this point to describe what appears to be the formal decision-making structure.

Such a description is not easy. One highly placed faculty member expressed concisely an opinion supported by a majority of interviewees that:

> There is no attempt in the Faculty to have a formal source by which to identify where decisions are made. The decision-making structure is of a much looser type.

Nevertheless some attempts have been made, at least informally if not formally, to define such a structure.[1]

THE FORMAL FACULTY DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURE

In Figure 3 the basic organizational structure for decision-making in the Faculty of Education is presented. Several features indicated or implied in this figure are important.

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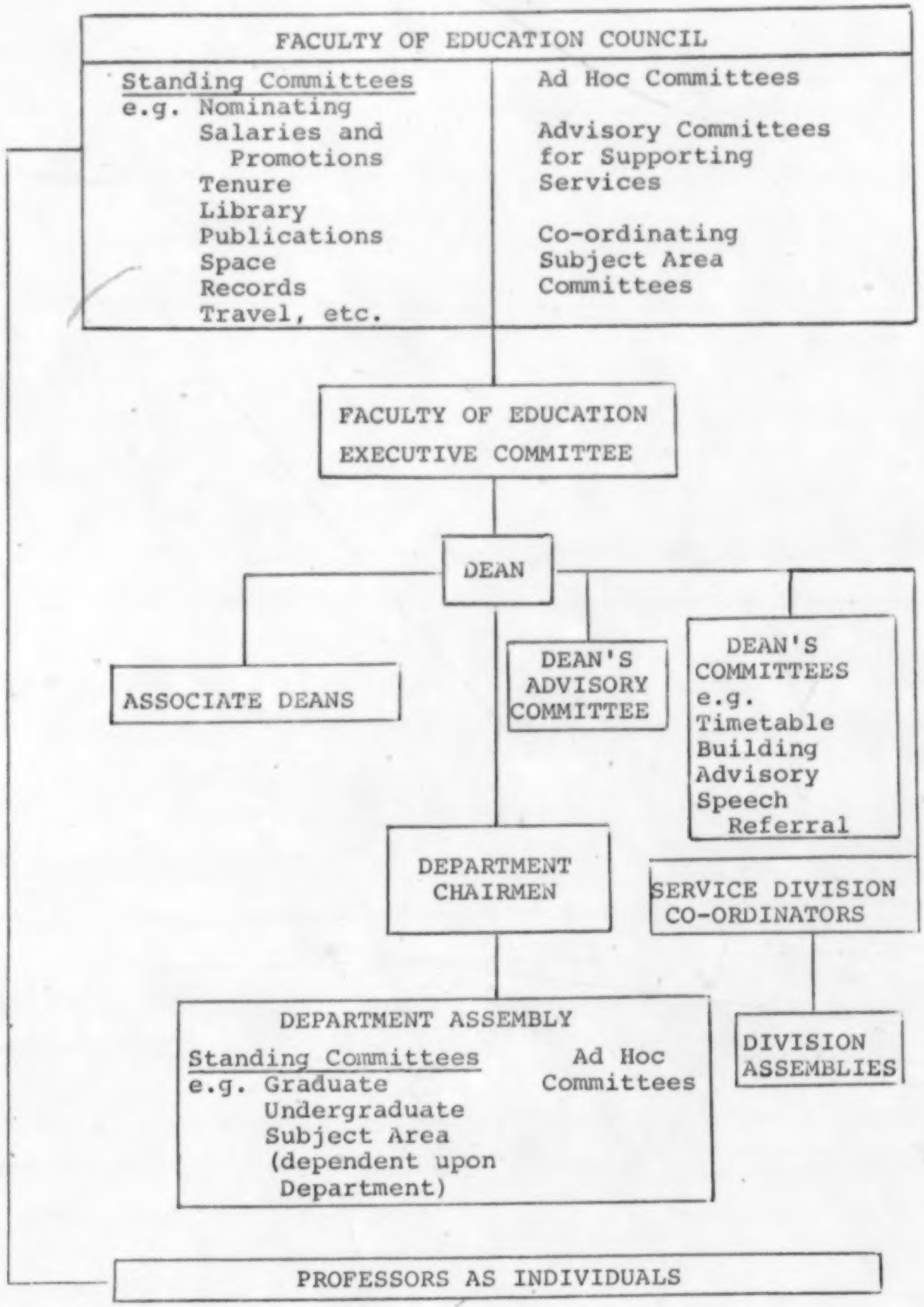
[1] See for example Miklos, E., Tichenor, H.D. and Purvis, N.M., Alternative Structures for the Faculty: A Working Paper Reported for the Long Range Planning Committee, March, 1973.

Figure 3: The Basic Organizational Structure for Decision-Making in the Faculty of Education


FACULTY OF EDUCATION COUNCIL
Standing Committees
e.g. Nominating
Salaries and Promotions
Tenure
Library
Publications
Space
Records
Travel, etc.
Ad Hoc Committees
Advisory Committees for Supporting Services
Co-ordinating Subject Area Committees
FACULTY OF EDUCATION EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE
DEAN
ASSOCIATE DEANS
DEAN'S ADVISORY COMMITTEE
DEAN'S COMMITTEES
e.g.
Timetable
Building
Advisory
Speech Referral
DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN
SERVICE DIVISION CO-ORDINATORS
DEPARTMENT ASSEMBLY
Standing Committees
e.g. Graduate
Undergraduate
Subject Area
(dependent upon Department)
Ad Hoc Committees
DIVISION ASSEMBLIES
PROFESSORS AS INDIVIDUALS

Variety

There are a variety of decision-making bodies located at different levels of the organization. One interviewee commented most appropriately that:

> The Faculty decision-making structure can be described as a triangle. But it is also a series of interlocking triangles ... Not only are there some decisions which come through to the Dean, the majority do not.

These decision bodies or "triangles" vary in size and composition and may include the total faculty, e.g., the Faculty of Education Council; the academic faculty of a department, e.g., the Department Staff Meeting; a body of elected representatives, e.g., the Faculty of Education Tenure Committee; a group of nominated representatives, e.g., the Faculty of Education Library Committee; or a single person, e.g., the Dean. Membership is determined in at least three different ways: by authority of position, e.g., all academic staff are members of the Faculty of Education Council; by nomination and election; and by nomination alone. Generally speaking, nominated and elected members have representative status whereby their action is, or may be, independent of the wishes of the group by whom they were elected.

Membership and Purpose

The membership of these bodies differs according to the level of Faculty organization at which they exist and the purpose for which they have been established.

For example, the Faculty of Education Salaries and Promotions Committee (a committee of the Faculty of Education Council) concerned with instructor evaluation, promotion, and awarding salary increments consists of the Dean, Department Chairmen and elected staff representatives. The Dean's Advisory Committee comprised of the Dean, Associate Deans and Department Chairmen, is concerned with supporting and advising the Dean on administrative matters. The Mathematics Education Co-ordinating Committee consists of Professors from across department divisions whose area of speciality is Mathematics Education. Their task in this committee is to co-ordinate programs across the department divisions and to ensure coherence of the total program offering. Numerous other similar examples exist to illustrate the same point.

Membership, Types of Decisions and Methods of Appointment

Membership differs according to the type of decision being made as does the method of appointment to the decision body. Three types of decisions appear relevant to the functioning of the Faculty of Education.

1. Decisions associated with policy determination:
    (i) At the Faculty level,
    (ii) At the department level.
2. Decisions associated with policy implementation, as reflected in, for example,

(i) Establishment of programs,

(ii) Financing operations,

(iii) Teaching courses.

3. Decisions associated with the administrative functioning of the Faculty, for example,

(i) Implementation of clearly defined and established procedures for the maintenance of Department and Faculty office functions.

Table 10 indicates the close relationship between the types of decision, methods of appointment to decision bodies, and membership patterns. Although Table 10 refers to only a representative sample of the Faculty of Education decision-making bodies, several trends seem clear.

1. When decisions are concerned with policy formation all academic faculty are involved, e.g., the Faculty of Education Council and the Department Assembly.

2. Where decisions are concerned with policy implementation, the academic faculty is involved on a representative basis. The type of representation appears to be related to the certainty with which established policy and administrative procedures can be implemented; to whether the relevant decisions affect academic staff personally and individually; to the implications decisions made will have for staff as a whole; and to the certainty with which areas of expertise can be identified.

Table 10: Decision-Making, Levels, Membership, Appointment and Decision Types

Decision-Making Body	Level of Existence	Membership of the Body	Method of Appointment	Types of Decisions Made (Example only)
Faculty of Education Council	Faculty	President, All full-Academic Staff of the Faculty of Education, Other representatives	Organizational status	Major policy decisions about programs
Faculty of Education Executive Committee	Faculty Standing Committee	Dean, Associate Deans, Academic Staff	Election, Organizational status	Receipt & processing reports; Preparation of FEC agenda
Faculty of Education Nominating Committee	Faculty	3 Academic Staff	Election	Nominations for Faculty Committees
Faculty of Education Salaries & Promotions	Faculty Standing Committee	Dean, Department Chairmen, 3 Academic Staff	Organizational status	Determination of eligibility for promotion and/or salary increments
Faculty of Education Library Committee	Faculty Standing Committee	Education Librarian, Co-ordinator of Curriculum Laboratory, Departments' representatives	Organizational status, Representative of Department	Library management
Faculty Staff Travel Committee	Faculty Standing Committee	Dean, Departments' representatives	Organizational status, Representative of Department	Staff travel finance allocation

Table 10: (Continued)

Decision-Making Body	Level of Existence	Membership of the Body	Method of Appointment	Types of Decisions Made (Example only)
Advisory Committee for Supporting Services	Faculty & Division	Department representatives	Representative of Department	Co-ordination & communication of services
Dean's Advisory Committee	Dean's Office	Dean, Associate Dean, Department Chairmen	Organizational status	Assistance in budget preparation, Communication link between Departments
Co-ordinating Subject Area Committees	Subject areas across Departmental Divisions	Members of particular subject area interests	Organizational status in special areas by nomination	Co-ordinating work in subject areas that cut across department divisions
Dean	Dean's Office	Dean	Organizational status	Administration of Faculty
Departmental Assembly	Department	Department Academic Staff	Organizational status	Final legislative body of Department
Department Teaching Teams	Department	Academic Staff	According to area of speciality	Determine strategies for instruction & program organization
Department Chairman	Department	Department Chairman	Organizational status	Administration of Department
Professor	Classroom	Professor	Organizational status	Instructional procedures

e.g., (i) The Faculty of Education Executive Committee which prepares the agenda for the Faculty of Education Council, a decision having implications for staff as a whole, is basically an elected body.

e.g., (ii) The Faculty of Education Tenure Committee which makes tenure decisions related to staff, personally and individually, is mainly an elected body.

e.g., (iii) The Faculty of Education Staff Travel Committee, concerned with applying policy to decisions regarding staff travel finance allocation is a nominated committee as compared to an elected committee.

e.g., (iv) Department teaching teams determining instructional strategies are established according to individual member's subject speciality.

3. Where decisions are associated with the administrative function of the Faculty and are clearly defined procedural activities authority of decision-making tends to reside in one person or a group of nominated people.

e.g., (i) Department Chairman and/or his administrative assistant alone are involved in the management of the department office, say, for example, in managing the Departmental budget.

Decisions and Decision Bodies

In many cases particular decisions cannot necessarily be identified with one particular decision body, decisions being modified as a result of relationships established between different decision bodies. Perhaps the most obvious examples of this are the decisions that arise from Co-ordinating Subject Area Committee (i.e.,a subject area committee across Departmental divisions) discussions, related to instructional strategies, resulting in modification to Teaching Team (i.e.,a committee within a single Department) decisions.

FUNCTIONING PROCEDURES IN THE FACULTY DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

Variety appears as the key word in any description of the Faculty decision structure: variety of loci of power, variety of membership patterns, variety of appointment methods and variety of decision types. It is not surprising, therefore, that the methods by which decisions are reached by the different elements of the decision structure are equally varied. Just as no one decision-making body exists within the Faculty so no one decision-making procedure exists either.

This is best illustrated by reference to the responses of a number of interviewees who described the decision-making procedures of the Department of which they were a member.

> There are three loci of decision-making, although it is difficult to classify any decision emerging solely from one. The three loci are the Chairman's office,

> the staff meeting, and the small group.... There are both formal and informal small groups. Ad hoc or standing committees constitute the formal. A Chairman talking to individuals would be an example of the informal ....
>
> The basic decision-making body is the staff meeting of academic staff, for which the Chairman acts as managerial and executive officer .... The Chairman can only provide incentive by giving staff freedom in which to move.
>
> As a joint appointment I am heavily involved in one Department in decision-making which affects me. In the other Department I am only one of a number of effective people.... One Department is structured, the other unstructured.
>
> It is easier to describe what decision-making isn't in this Department ... Few matters are brought to a formal vote, except where regulations require it. It isn't arbitrary decision-making by the Chairman. ... The approach is to raise issues, discuss them, and to make decisions on a "feeling" of consensus.
>
> Where certainty exists decisions are autocratic. Where uncertainty exists matters are referred to individuals in Departments.... Division is resolved by majority decision.
>
> Decisions are made primarily through elected committees who bring decisions to Department meetings. There is an extensive network of committees all of whom feel they can call upon the Department Chairman for input.
>
> Generally decisions are informal.
>
> A motion or vote is most unusual. Discussion is carried on until consensus is reached.

Although similarities exist between different sets of decision bodies there appears to be no overall communality of procedure for reaching a decision. Formality, informality, structure, authoritarianism, lack of structure, consensus, decision by motion and majority vote, Chairman as resource person, and Chairman as executive officer, are all important aspects of the decision-making procedure of the Faculty.

This variety of procedure appears to have as its explanation at least three important factors.

1. Personality

The personality of the Chairman of the Department or the Dean, and the expectation he holds for decision-making processes within his sphere of influence is clearly a very influential determinant of the nature of procedures. This is illustrated very clearly by reference to interviewees' comments based on an historical perspective of decision procedures.

> Note the point this Department is at historically. Formerly decision-making under a previous Chairman was authoritarian.... A swing to democratic decision-making is occurring now.... It is recognized that the strength of the Department is in the strength of the staff.
>
> There has been a change over time, towards more openness and greater participation. Whereas seniors have exerted more power than juniors, now power tends to be dispersed throughout all levels.
>
> The era in which the Dean shaped the Faculty is passed. The present Dean makes it possible for faculty to give direction to the Faculty.

Similarly, statements from Department Chairmen themselves illustrate the influence their beliefs about leadership and participation must have on decision procedures within a Department. Note, for example, the comments by different Chairmen that:

> The Chairman's role is as a facilitator and prodder.

> The Chairman needs discretion in choosing areas for professor involvement in decision-making.
>
> Many decisions in a Department are facilitative to teaching, and ought not be the affair of the instructors.... The Chairman has far more knowledge relevant to many decisions.
>
> Some decisions the instructor must make himself ... Instructors should have the chance to influence any decision which has a bearing on his work.... All faculty should have opportunities to give views on larger issues not having immediate bearing on his work.
>
> There should be no differentiation in roles in determining the direction the Department should go.

While no Department Chairman interviewed was prepared to admit to a place for total authoritarianism in decision-making, a continuum of expressed attitudes towards decision-making emerged, and is illustrated in the above quotations. On one side the Chairman's role was defined as that of a facilitator of consensual decision-making. The other end of the continuum appeared to be a situation where the Chairman retained the discretion to choose those areas in which instructors should / should not be involved in the decision-making process, and where they should be involved that this be by a democratic majority vote procedure wherever appropriate.

2. Group Size

Regardless of the administrator's personal preference for specific procedures, he operates under certain physical constraints. Foremost among these in relation to decision-making is group size, an influential determinant on choice of procedure.

It is unrealistic, for example, for the Dean to encourage consensus in decision-making by the Faculty of Education Council, a body of more than one hundred and forty staff representing a variety of Departments and subject areas. Similarly, such an approach at the Department Assembly level of a large Department would be equally futile. However, it is an appropriate approach at a small Department Assembly, or ad hoc committee level.

Referring to size, one Department Chairman commented:

> The problem of involvement becomes a very difficult one when the Department is very large. The Chairman becomes so bogged down.... The time factor becomes a real limit. Often the Chairman can only consult a sample of faculty.

Even where size does not totally inhibit more involvement-oriented decision techniques such as consensus it still remains a concern. As one interviewee put it:

> It would be helpful if decision-making could be formalized by bringing matters to a vote. It is difficult to reach consensus. Staff want to express an opinion, not necessarily to have opinion prevail.

3. Group Composition

Group composition is another relevant influence.

Various group members have different expectations for participation and procedure, in a similar way to that noted about Chairmen above.

Where decision bodies cut across discipline areas, Department boundaries, or interest groups there is a tendency toward less cohesiveness in the group, often reflected in a clear differentiation of competing interests. Consensus as a decision procedure has little chance in a group such as this and some form of democratic voting becomes essential if decisions are to be taken.

This point is best illustrated by comparing the functioning of two Department Assemblies of comparable size. One Department has no clearly defined subject area or sub-department boundaries. Its procedure for reaching a decision is by consensus. The other has clearly defined subject area boundaries and appointed co-ordinators. The Department Assembly procedure for reaching a decision is by the motion-discussion-vote-majority decision approach.

It must be noted that this procedure is not explained solely in terms of conflict-of-interest problems. However, this is one of the several factors that in combination tend to cause the choice of specific decision-making procedures.

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH IDENTIFYING A DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURE

While it is relatively simple to identify an existing formal decision-making structure it is extremely unwise to assert with assurance that the identified structure actually represents the process by which decisions are reached or that the structure actually has the capacity to function in the way it was designed to function. At least four features are evident in the Faculty which suggest that any such assertion would be injudicious.

1. The Locus of Power

It is uncertain that the locus of power exists where the formal structure suggests it exists. Three examples illustrate this.

(i) The major responsibility of the Faculty of Education Council is the definition of Faculty goals and making major policy decisions about programs. These responsibilities have been conducted in the normal fashion of monthly meetings and committee action. However, the Executive Committee has been delegated authority to prepare the agenda for the regular monthly meeting. As Miklos et al.(1973:3) point out:

> Consequently, a significant amount of power to make major decisions now resides in one committee which includes relatively small staff representation. One effect has been to reduce the significance of FEC meetings and to remove the discussion of certain issues from the Faculty wide arena. The presence of a substantial number of "for information only" items on the agenda of the FEC and the relatively low attendance rate may be indicative of a problem.

Expressions of opinion from a variety of interviewees support the position taken above, e.g.,

> In the opinion of some the Executive have exercised initiative in areas that might have come to Council.

No judgement is being passed on the correctness of this procedure or otherwise. What is relevant is that it exemplifies the fact that while theoretically power is vested in one body, in practice it may well exist in another.

(ii) In 1973-4 there were in the Faculty Standing Committees, Advisory Committees for Supporting Services, and the Dean's Committees one hundred and fifteen possible positions on decision-making bodies. This number excluded those positions determined by a person's administrative rank, e.g., the Dean on the Executive Committee or the Co-ordinator on the Curriculum Laboratory Advisory Committee, etc. Although there are in excess of one hundred and forty staff, these positions are vested in seventy-seven staff, that is, in less than sixty percent of the academic staff membership. Thirty-one (21%) are involved on two or more committees, fourteen (10%) are involved in three or more, and nine are involved in four or more. Not surprisingly each bar one of those involved in four or more is a Department Chairman.

Two facts emerge that are relevant to this discussion about the loci of power.

(a) Although the concept of instructor participation in decision-making is accepted in its operational form, participation beyond Faculty of Education Council or Department Assembly cannot, and does not allow for involvement of all.

(b) There are a small number of people, other than Department Chairmen, who have greater involvement than others over a wide range of areas. It seems reasonable to assume that such involvement will provide this minority group with a larger sphere of influence in decision-making than is normally the case.

(iii) The ability to make an operable decision depends to an extent upon the access to relevant information that a decision-maker has. Several interviewees intimated that in the Faculty the locus of power in decision-making was, in fact, a function of access to information, and that some individuals played a greater role than others solely because their position provided them with greater access.

Thus it would seem that the formal structures established for decision-making and the actual locus of power may not always be congruent. It must also be recognized, however, that even within the formal structure of the Faculty recognition of possible incongruencies has been made, with the development of avenues for individuals removed from operational power bases to influence decisions. These are basically concerned with providing easy access to the mechanisms of decision-making. In the terms of one interviewee:

"Ease of access is another way of participating."

and of another:

> Instructor involvement may be defined as the opportunity to make a point of view or concern known, and to react to any report if it is not appropriate.

Such access can be attained by letter, brief, appeal against a decision, self nomination to committees from the floor as compared to nomination by the nomination committee, and by personal contact with Department Chairmen and the Dean. Of course how successful such avenues of accessibility are is dependent to a large extent upon how their utility is perceived by individual staff members.

2. External Agencies

The second feature making it difficult to identify a decision structure which actually represents the decision-making process is the influence that decisions taken by external agencies have on activities particularly relevant to individual Faculties or Departments.

Several Department Chairmen noted, for example, the influence financial decisions by the Department of Advanced Education and the University Board of Governors had on budgetary decision-making within the Departments.

> There are various areas where the degree of discretion is so narrow it is pointless to involve people.... Especially at the Department level there is not much to talk about in the area of budget this year....

> In the Faculty budget decision-making is a pot of money divided by the Dean through discussion .... this Department's only option in financial decision-making will be in the area of Supplies and Sundries,

> and the only decision will be can we cut up the pie in a different way ....

In a similar fashion the Faculty of Education Council is limited by the rules governing teacher certification (e.g., in relation to requirements for a teaching practicum), and by the University regulations governing all Faculties.

Consequently many decisions arise which:

(i) The Faculty may not be in total agreement with.

(ii) The Faculty or Department has little or no authority to change.

(iii) Pre-determine the nature of a series of consequential decisions within the Faculty or Department.

3. Implementation of Decisions

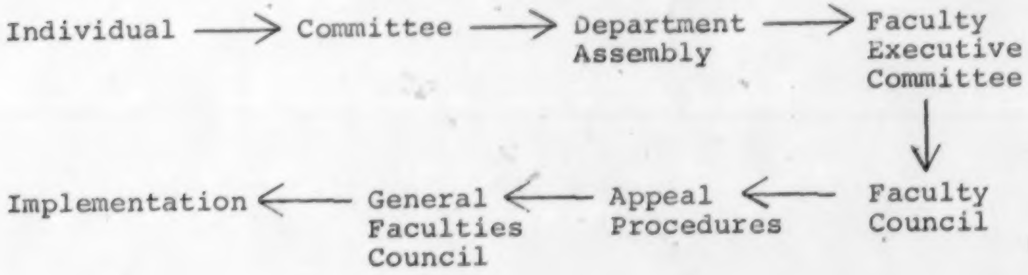
Even where decisions are made within the formal decision-making structure, there can be no certainty that the implementers of the decision will accommodate the spirit of the decision in the implementation.

From discussions with interviewees it became apparent that at least two factors inhibit effective application of decisions made by formal structures.

(i) The nature of the Faculty organization means that much of the decision-making is a lengthy process. This becomes especially so when approval for decisions is required beyond the Faculty level at the General Faculties Council (University) level.

As Figure 4 indicates, in an important policy area (e.g., approval of a new program of study) there can be as many as eight stages in the procedure before a final decision is made. Where decisions are required as a matter of urgency, therefore, it is likely that informal, interim decisions will be taken by those most affected by the lack of decision.

Figure 4: A Possible Decision-Making Procedure for Implementation of Policy Proposal


Individual
Committee
Department Assembly
Faculty Executive Committee
Faculty Council
Appeal Procedures
General Faculties Council
Implementation

(ii) Decision-making is very diffuse in its impact. This is reflected in the effect one decision can have on the need for further decisions. A formal decision often stimulates a variety of informal decisions by individuals assigned the task of implementing the formal decision. These facilitating decisions occur especially where decisions are made by bodies which are not fully conversant with all the relevant information or who have failed to consider all the implications of the decisions for administration.

One interviewee described this effect when he noted that:

> Many of the structures developed in this Department and in the Faculty have developed not from any deliberate decision-making, but from unofficial action taken (by the Chairman) to facilitate the implementation of other decisions.

(iii) In this context it should also be noted that in any particular case the effectiveness of any decision taken will be dependent upon the perception and support of the individuals involved in the implementation.

SUMMARY

This chapter has attempted to describe the formal decision-making structure of the Faculty of Education. Several features have been noted which make it extremely difficult to specify any particular structure as an appropriate description of decision-making in the Faculty. Among these difficulties are the problem of whether the formal structure actually represents the informal loci of power in decision-making; the modifying influence that decisions taken by external agencies have on many decisions that might be made within the Faculty; and the possible incongruency between the formal decision and the decision as implemented.

Nevertheless, a variety of important features of the formal decision-making structure were identified. Among these are:

1. A variety of decision-making bodies are located at different levels of the organization.

2. Membership differs according to the level and purpose of the body.

3. Membership differs according to the type of decision being made.

4. The method of appointment varies according to the type of decision being made.

5. Decisions cannot always be identified with a particular decision body.

6. Procedures for making decisions vary with different decision-making bodies.

The variety of decision structures and procedures, range of membership and methods of appointment and their relationship to the purpose of the decision body and the type of decision being made can be at least partially explained in terms of the certainty or uncertainty of the decision taken. Certainty can be described in terms of:

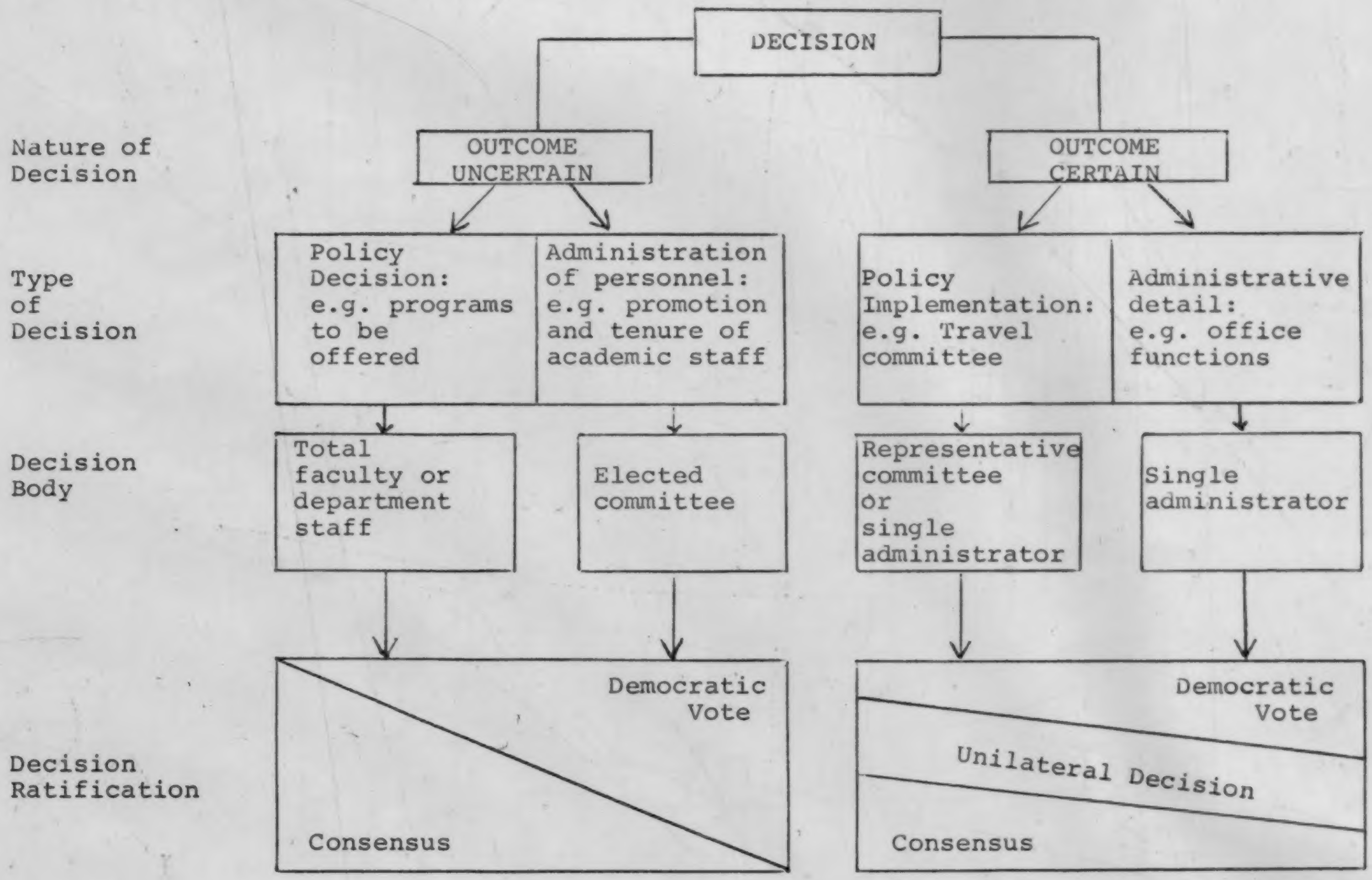
1. The direction or lack of direction given to decisions by existing policy.

2. Knowledge about the impact decisions will have on the Faculty and its members.

This relationship is summarized in Figure 5.

While this chapter has described and analysed the formal decision-making structure of a Faculty of Education as it appears to exist to an outside observer, it must be recognized that the reality of its existence

Figure 5: The Relationship Between Nature and Type of Decisions, Decision Bodies and Decision Procedures


DECISION
Nature of Decision
OUTCOME UNCERTAIN
OUTCOME CERTAIN
Type of Decision
Policy Decision: e.g. programs to be offered
Administration of personnel: e.g. promotion and tenure of academic staff
Policy Implementation: e.g. Travel committee
Administrative detail: e.g. office functions
Decision Body
Total faculty or department staff
Elected committee
Representative committee or single administrator
Single administrator
Decision Ratification
Democratic Vote
Consensus
Democratic Vote
Unilateral Decision
Consensus

and the perception of its existence may differ. This is especially important for those operating within the structure. The next three chapters report on the perceptions of the decision structure held by the academic faculty, especially emphasizing discrepancies between how they currently perceive its operation and how they would prefer it to be. Chapter 5 reports on the general perceptions of, and expectations held by faculty as a whole for participation in decision-making.

CHAPTER 5

FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF AND EXPECTATIONS FOR PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4 the nature of the existing formal Faculty decision-making structure was described and analysed. It was noted that regardless of the actual reality of any structure, what is important for individual faculty is how they perceive that reality. This chapter concerns itself with these perceptions, both as faculty currently perceive their level of involvement and as they would prefer their level of involvement to be.

Consequently, this chapter is concerned with the following questions:

1. How do faculty perceive their current role in the decision-making structures of the Faculty?

2. How would the faculty prefer to be involved in Faculty decision-making?

3. What discrepancies exist between faculty perceptions of their current level of participation in decision-making and their preferences for participation in decision-making?

The chapter will report on the responses of faculty as a whole, with no differentiation being made between the sub-groups that exist within the Faculty.

CURRENT AND PREFERRED PERCEPTIONS OF FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION-MAKING

Figure 6 presents a series of frequency polygons representing total faculty responses to PART B of the questionnaire, regarding faculty's current and preferred perceptions of their level of involvement in decision-making.

Figure 6(a) represents the aggregate of responses for all questions. Figures 6(b)-(h) represent the aggregates of responses for all questions within each of the seven decision areas defined in this study. Looking at each of these graphs separately, a number of observations can be made.

Total Responses to All Questions Collectively

Figure 6(a) illustrates the sum of all responses made to all decision areas identified in the questionnaire. Each percentage represented on the graph for individual decision-type categories represents the total number of times that category was selected by respondents, as a percentage of the total possible number of times it could have been selected. The trends illustrated, therefore, are only a general indicator of the overall pattern of

Figure 6: Percentages of Total Response Selection for Each Decision Area (n = 100)

Key: —— Current
----- Preferred

N. NONE
DIS. DISCUSSION
C. CONSULTATION
J.A. JOINT ACTION
DET. DETERMINATION

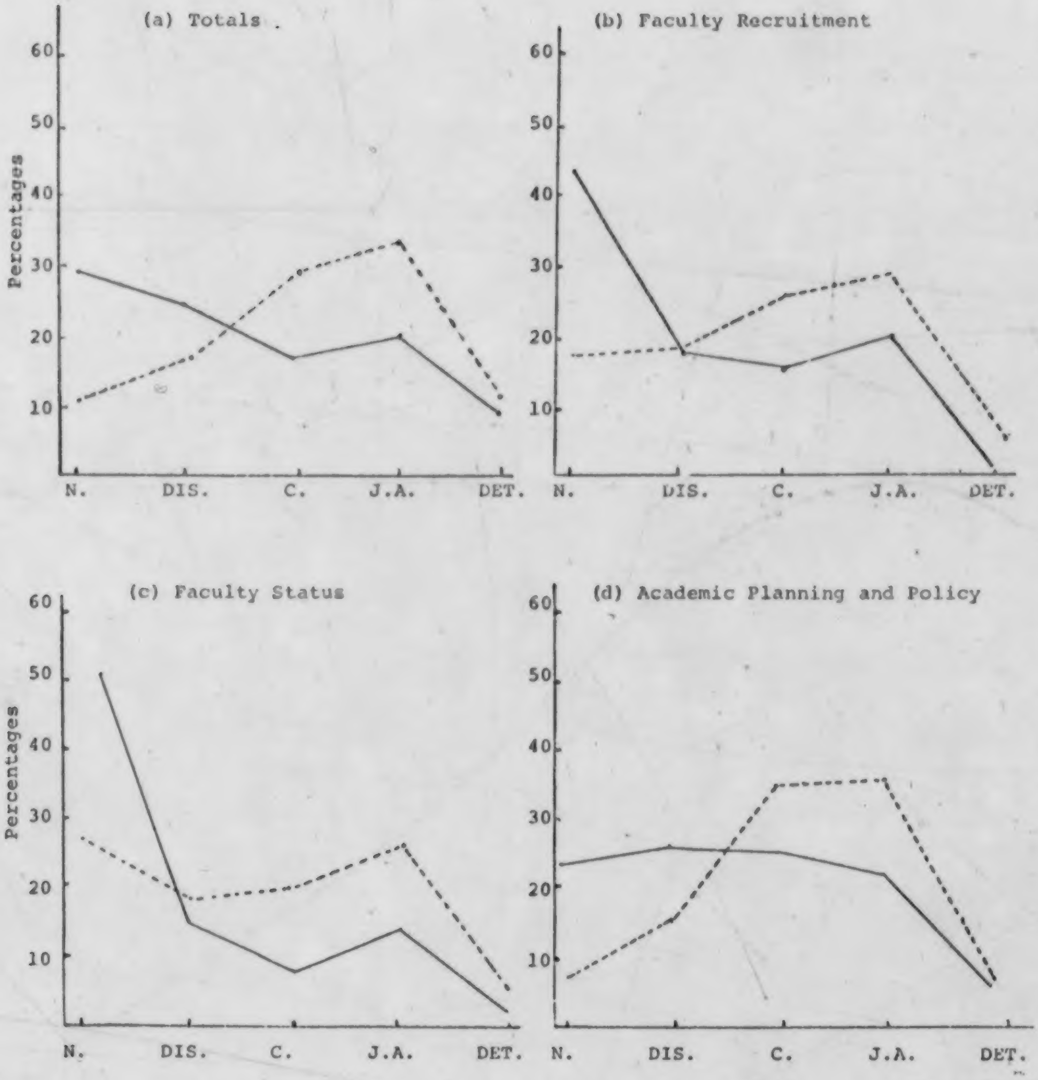
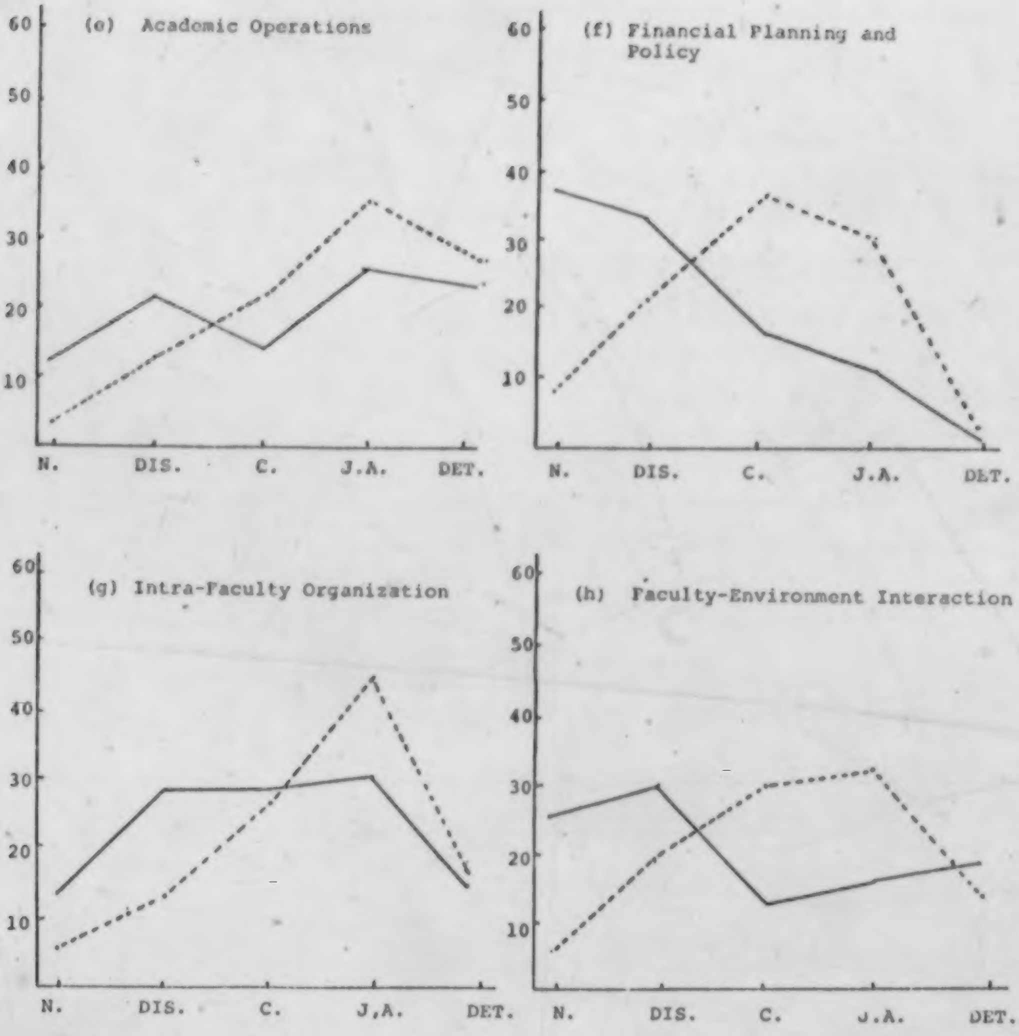


Figure 6: Continued



response by the faculty, regardless of the grouping of decision areas.

In this context, a number of trends emerge.

1. Faculty respond diversely in expressing their perceptions of Current and Preferred levels of instructor involvement in Faculty decision-making. All types of decision-making involvement as identified by the questionnaire categories are chosen at some point by respondents, although the percentage of times chosen varies widely (see Appendix D for actual percentages).

2. Faculty chose DETERMINATION only 10% of the time in describing their perception of Current involvement. Similarly DETERMINATION was chosen only 11% of the time when Preferred levels of involvement were being described. Apparently faculty neither perceive their involvement as, nor want it to be, total authority with respect to policy and action.

3. The category chosen most as a description of Current involvement was NONE. The category chosen most often as a description of Preferred involvement was JOINT ACTION. Superficially, this would seem to suggest that there is a vast difference between what faculty perceive as their present level of involvement and what they would prefer. Closer examination, however, suggests that this is not the case.

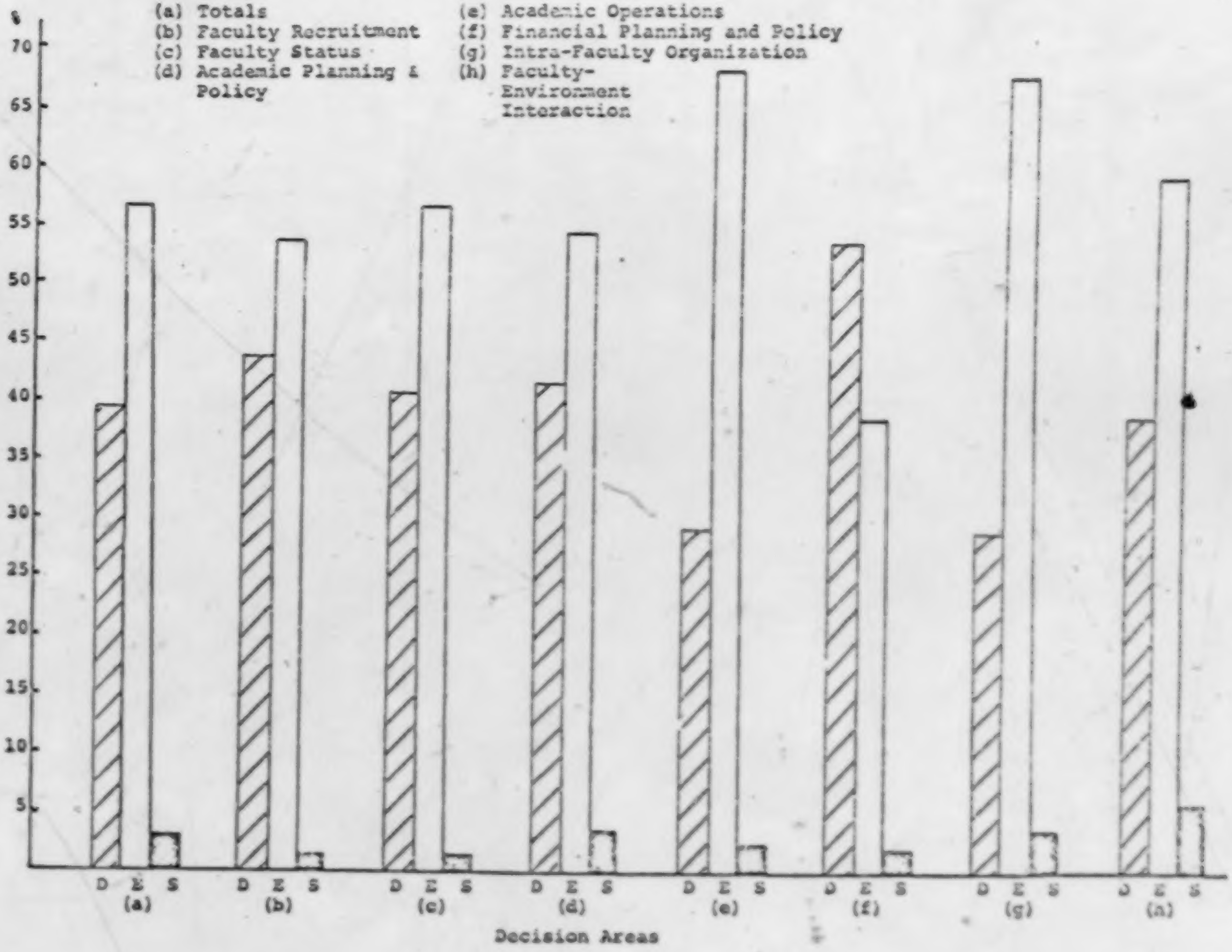
An analysis of individual responses, and of the changes in response from the Current category to the

Preferred category indicates that there are three types of people responding. There are those who perceive themselves as Formally (as defined in Chapter 1) involved in decision-making with the administration, and wish to maintain that status. There are those who perceive themselves as only Informally involved (as defined in Chapter 1) or not involved at all, and wish to increase their level of involvement. Finally, there are those who perceive themselves as not involved and who wish to maintain that status. It is interesting that there is only a very small number of responses representing a group who perceive themselves as involved and who do not wish this. This number is so small as to be relatively insignificant.

Thus Figure 6(a) appears to describe a situation in which there are in existence clearly defined groups of "haves" and "have nots" in the decision-making, a fact implied in Chapter 4 when it was noted that committee positions were vested in a low percentage of total staff members.

This is further emphasized by Figure 7 which illustrates the level of faculty decisional equilibrium, saturation and deprivation, as indicated by the total number of responses in each category for all questions collectively. (The method of calculating this index of decisional condition is described in Chapter 3.) As Figure 7 shows, a large percentage of responses cluster

Figure 7: Total Percentage Responses Indicating Conditions of Decisional Deprivation (D), Equilibrium (E), and Saturation (S) (n = 100)



in two of the three decisional conditions. The majority of responses indicate conditions of decisional equilibrium for the particular items so scored. In other words, 58% of responses to PART B of the questionnaire indicated that the respondent's current perception of his level of involvement in decision-making was equivalent to the level of involvement preferred.

A significant minority of responses indicated a condition of decisional deprivation for each specific item responded to. In other words, 39% of responses indicated that the respondent perceived a level of involvement which was less than preferred.

A very small minority of responses (3%) indicated a condition of decisional saturation. That is, very few responses indicated that the respondents for particular items perceived that their current level of involvement in decision-making was more than that they preferred.

4. It is also possible to interpret the responses in terms of perceived and preferred INFORMAL or FORMAL involvement, where INFORMAL involvement is defined as the categories NONE and DISCUSSION, and FORMAL involvement is identified as CONSULTATION, JOINT ACTION and DETERMINATION. Using this dichotomy to distinguish between responses, a clear change in type of response from Current Perception to Preferred existence is evident. Of the 54% of responses indicating Current Perceptions of

INFORMAL involvement, half (i.e. 27% of total responses) change to preferences of FORMAL involvement.

5. One further implication appears clear. While faculty have little expressed desire for total control over decision-making, they do prefer a particular quality of recognition of their role. They appear to feel that if their opinion is of value and worthwhile obtaining, then there should be some formality to the process of obtaining that opinion, and to the reflection of it in the final decisions.

The nature of this analysis of faculty responses in general seems to be further supported by both unsolicited responses on the questionnaire and by interview responses.

Two comments serve as an example of the diversity of perception of current levels of involvement.

> As a "junior" faculty member I have little cumulative contact with the more senior people who dominate policy, salaries and promotion, etc. Thus I have minimal credibility and little chance of producing effective change within the Faculty.

It is not surprising that this particular respondent's questionnaire indicated by his responses high levels of decisional deprivation for most decision areas identified.

The response of another interviewee emphasizes the diversity.

> There is tremendous involvement of all levels in the formulation of policies.... In terms of an organizational model in, for example, business or

> industry, there is a tremendous amount of participation.

Not surprisingly, this respondent indicated a condition of decisional equilibrium in his questionnaire responses.

That respondents were cautious in choosing DETERMINATION as either the Current or Preferred level of involvement was also supported by interviewees' statements. Frequent reference was made to the importance of restricting involvement to particular areas where personal responsibility was the greatest.

> Basically the instructor should have jurisdiction in those areas in which the effects of decisions fall in his sphere. If the impact of the decision falls beyond that sphere then he must get his power base from the area in which the impact falls. There has ultimately to be an identification of responsibility.... Better decisions are made when people are involved through a group-think process.

Similarly, a number of interviewees made basically the same observation that:

> We have to recognize our own bailiwick and operate within it.... Implications of decisions may not be seen by instructors. Decisions should be made at the level where implications are the greatest, where the far reaching consequences will fall.

At the same time, however, a majority of interviewees expressed sentiments similar to those expressed in the comment that:

> The instructor has a right to as full knowledge as possible about decisions being made that affect him and faculty and has the right to vote on this in terms of the effect it will have on the individual.

Thus, while interviewees generally saw a need to recognize restrictions on the extent of their involvement in decision-making, they also expressed a need for recognition of the involvement in decision-making in a formal way such as voting.

Looking more specifically at particular decision areas it can be seen that the general response trends indicated by overall total faculty responses are also evident. The differences are in emphasis only, not in the nature of the trends discussed above.

Faculty Recruitment

Figure 6(b) (p. 129) illustrates that sum of all responses made to the decision area of Faculty Recruitment with each percentage represented on the graph indicating the total numbers of times that category was selected by respondents for the decision area of Faculty Recruitment.

Similar to Figure 6(a) a diversity of responses occurred; DETERMINATION was chosen infrequently both in Current and Preferred choices; NONE was the most frequently chosen category in Current Perception choices; and there was a strong movement from currently perceived INFORMAL involvement to preferred FORMAL involvement.

For this decision area, 43% of Current Perception responses were in the NONE category, and 1% were for DETERMINATION. Sixty-two percent of Current responses indicated perception of INFORMAL involvement in decision-making.

In Preferred responses 18% of scores were in the category of NONE and 7% in DETERMINATION. However, only 38% of responses indicated a preference for INFORMAL involvement. There was a swing of 24% from Current perceived FORMAL involvement to Preferred FORMAL involvement.

That a significant percentage of respondents currently viewed themselves as deprived of decisional involvement is also indicated by the decisional condition index for the decision area of Faculty Recruitment. As Figure 7 demonstrates 44% of responses indicate a state of decisional deprivation. This is offset to an extent by a 54% score for decisional equilibrium. Only 2% of scores indicate a state of decisional saturation. This further supports the concept of a clearly defined group of perceived "haves" and "have nots" in decision involvement existing in the Faculty, at least as applied to this decision area.

One of the most notable aspects of this pattern is the 18% of responses which remain in the NONE category for Preferred choices. Reference to results of specific decision items within the general decision area indicates that this can be explained in terms of a different response pattern for items 2, 5, and to a lesser extent 4 of PART B of the questionnaire, compared to the other three items. Each of these maintains a relatively high percentage response in the NONE and DISCUSSION categories, as is illustrated in Table 11.

Table 11: Total Percentage Responses in NONE and DISCUSSION Categories for Preferred Involvement in Decision-Making in Faculty Recruitment (n = 100)

Item	Preferred NONE	Preferred DISCUSSION	Total
1	3	16	19
2	39	23	62
3	0	6	6
4	17	28	45
5	50	26	76
6	2	17	19

The high scoring items in this category in the case of 2 and 5 are concerned with the recruitment of staff outside the respondent's department. Item 4 refers to the recruitment of administrative faculty other than the Dean or Department Chairman. Their responses appear quite consistent with reports earlier in the chapter of interviewee's expressed desires to keep their involvement within their own bailiwick. Apparently the "bailiwick" for Faculty Recruitment is defined as the department within which the respondents are employed.

The differences in response generated by "within" and "outside" department decisions implied here will be treated in more detail in Chapter 6.

Faculty Status

The pattern of response indicated in the Total Responses and Faculty Recruitment categories is evident once more.

Again the magnitude of responses to various categories differs. Fifty-nine percent of Current Perception responses group in the NONE category and over 75% of the responses indicated perceived INFORMALITY in the level of decision-making involvement. In the Preferred category, however, there is a larger shift from perceived INFORMAL involvement to preferred FORMAL involvement than is evident in either of the areas (Total Responses and Faculty Recruitment) so far discussed. This shift of 29% again emphasizes the probable existence of a large group of persons who perceive themselves to be "have nots" in the decision-making process and wish for greater recognition of their role.

Evidence for this is provided once again by Figure 7(c) (p. 133) which illustrates that 42% of responses in the decision area of Faculty Status indicate a condition of decisional deprivation, 56% a condition of decisional equilibrium, and 2% decisional saturation.

Despite this, there still remains a sizeable percentage of responses in the Preferred INFORMAL involvement categories. Again, looking specifically at individual items, the influence of own-department centred items compared to other-department centred items, partly explains the remaining concentration of responses in the NONE category for Preferred involvement.

Table 12: Total Percentage Responses in NONE and DISCUSSION Categories for Preferred Involvement in Decision-Making in Faculty Status (n = 100)

Item	Preferred NONE	Preferred DISCUSSION	Total
7	56	14	70
8	16	19	35
9	23	14	37
10	14	21	35
11	17	22	39
12	38	26	64

Item 7 is concerned with promotions outside the respondent's department, thus supporting the trend noted for Faculty Recruitment. Item 12, however, is concerned with the evaluation of other instructors. This implies another dimension to the instructor's "own bailiwick"; a desire not to be involved in possibly unfavorable personal decision-making about other instructors.

Academic Planning and Policy

While responses to Current and Preferred involvement in Academic Planning and Policy also support the previously noted general trends, a modification of this pattern is evident for this decision area. There is still a diversity of responses; DETERMINATION is chosen infrequently as a response; and there is a 27% movement of responses from Current perceived INFORMAL involvement to Preferred FORMAL involvement.

This movement in responses is again indicated in the decisional condition index for Academic Planning and Policy which illustrates a pattern very similar to that for the previously mentioned decision areas.

However, of the decision areas discussed to this point, this is the first in which less than 50% of the responses falls into the NONE and DISCUSSION (INFORMAL) categories for Current Perception of involvement. Only 22% of Preferred responses were in these two categories.

The magnitude of this change in pattern is emphasized when it is realized that two items contribute far more heavily to the NONE/DISCUSSION categories than the others.

Table 13 illustrates that items 14 and 20 both attract relatively large numbers of responses to the NONE/DISCUSSION categories. Each of these items identifies an area which represents an out-of-department decision, a pattern similar to that noted for decision areas discussed earlier.

Table 13: Total Percentage Responses in NONE and DISCUSSION Categories for Preferred Involvement in Decision-Making in Academic Planning and Policy (n = 100)

Item	Preferred NONE	Preferred DISCUSSION	Total
13	2	3	5
14	9	30	39
15	4	17	21
16	2	13	15
17	4	17	21
18	6	10	16
19	1	8	9
20	24	23	47

This change in pattern can apparently be explained in terms of the nature of the decision area being investigated. Excluding items 14 and 20 each of the items is concerned with decisions either directly related to course programs or to the maintenance and development of facilities and resources which are considered essential to the continuance of the programs.

Academic Operations

Response to the decision area of Academic Operations produced a pattern notably different from those so far discussed. While the tendency for a percentage of responses to move from the NONE/DISCUSSION categories for

Current Perception of involvement to CONSULTATION/JOINT ACTION/DETERMINATION remained, the movement came from only 20% of responses, much less than for all other decision areas except Intra-Faculty Organization. Only 29% of responses indicated a condition of decisional deprivation. In contrast 68% of responses indicated a condition of decisional equilibrium and only 3% indicated decisional saturation. In this area, then, a large majority of responses indicated satisfaction with their present level of decisional involvement.

For Current Perception NONE was not the response category most chosen. Rather, choices were spread over all categories with JOINT ACTION being chosen slightly more often than DETERMINATION, DISCUSSION, CONSULTATION and finally NONE. While JOINT ACTION was the most popular category for Preferred involvement, DETERMINATION was also chosen relatively more times than was the case for the other decision areas.

This difference in response pattern can again be explained in terms of the nature of the decision area. The items within this decision area are concerned mainly with classroom behavior (e.g., items 26 and 28) or with facilitating classroom performance (e.g., items 21, 22, 23, 24 and 27). The decision area of Academic Operations appears to be that with which instructors identify most closely as their own bailiwick. The closer the decision area is to the instructor's day-to-day activities, the more he desires to have total control over the decision. This seems to be emphasized when the responses to items 26 and 28 are considered individually.

Table 14 illustrates the responses for Preferred involvement for item 26, Choice of Instructional Practices, and item 28, Development of Evaluation Procedures.

Table 14: Responses for Preferred Involvement in Decision Areas, Items 26 and 28 (n = 100)

Item	Category of Response				
	NONE	DISCUSSION	CONSULTATION	JOINT ACTION	DETERMINATION
26	9	7	9	6	69
28	6	5	16	22	51

The desire for total control in these areas by most instructors is quite evident from the clustering of the majority of responses in the DETERMINATION and (to a lesser extent for item 28) the JOINT ACTION categories. The general trend of this desire was confirmed in the interviews in which all twenty-eight interviewees responded in a similar fashion regarding those areas in which instructors should be heavily involved in the decision-making.

e.g. Course content is the area of most authority for the instructor. He should have independence in choosing content. Of course, feedback is welcome, as it is important to thrash out problems and avoid overlap.

e.g. The instructor should have the chance to influence any decision which has a bearing on his work.

Financial Planning and Policy

The response pattern for the decision area of Financial Planning and Policy again follows the pattern noted earlier. A variety of responses are chosen; in Current Perception the category most often chosen is NONE and 72% of responses fall in the NONE/DISCUSSION categories; the category least chosen for both Current Perception and Preferred involvement is DETERMINATION (2%); and there is movement of responses from the INFORMAL involvement categories to the FORMAL involvement categories in respondent's stated preferences compared to their current perceptions.

However, there are at least two aspects of responses to this decision area which are noteworthy.

1. The magnitude of the movement of responses from the INFORMAL categories on the Current Perception scale to the FORMAL categories on the Preferred involvement scale far exceeded that of any of the other decision areas. While 72% of responses on the Current Perception scale were in the NONE/DISCUSSION categories, in the Preferred involvement scale only 31% of responses fell in these two categories. That is, there was a 41% change in allocation of responses.

The importance of this movement is indicated in the decisional condition index. As Figure 7 (p. 133) illustrates, Financial Planning and Policy is the one decision area in which there is a majority of responses (54%) indicating a condition of decisional deprivation. Only 44% of responses indicate decisional equilibrium and 2% decisional saturation. Although the implications of this result will be more fully discussed in later chapters it is relevant to note here that while instructors appear to want greater involvement, interviews indicate that this is one area where conditions (e.g., external pressures limiting finance) make greater involvement relatively pointless. Limitations on finance have reduced the decision-making to a consideration of where to reduce spending in areas such as supplies, sundries and equipment.

2. This was the only decision area in which the CONSULTATION category (37%) was most often chosen on the Preferred involvement scale. For all other decision areas JOINT ACTION was the response most often chosen on the Preferred involvement scale.

These two aspects of the response pattern to the decision area of Financial Planning and Policy taken together suggest that this area is one in which instructors want more involvement than they presently perceive themselves as having, but, at the same time, do not desire either overall control, nor in a majority of cases even joint control. However, generally speaking, they expect formal recognition of their opinion.

Intra-Faculty Organization

The response pattern in the decision area of Intra-Faculty Organization indicates some of the general trends noted earlier, viz. a diversity of responses and an 18% movement of responses from Current perceived INFORMAL involvement to Preferred FORMAL involvement.

There are several differences from the general trend, however, similar in some ways to the pattern of Academic Operations and to a lesser extent that of Academic Planning and Policy. Like Academic Operations relatively few respondents on both the Current and Preferred scales chose NONE and the variation in response from Current to Preferred scales is comparatively small. Further, similar to both Academic Operations and Academic Planning and Policy less than 50% of responses fall into the NONE and DISCUSSION (INFORMAL) categories for either scale.

This decision area was also one for which there was a large percentage of responses (68%) indicating a condition of decisional equilibrium. Only 28% of responses suggested a level of decisional deprivation.

This pattern described above is understandable in terms of the specific items measured within this particular decision area. The majority of these are concerned with the establishment of committees, a process for which clearly identifiable procedures have been developed. It is not surprising that a large majority of Current Perception responses for items 37, 38, 39, 40 and 42 score in the FORMAL involvement categories of CONSULTATION, JOINT ACTION and DETERMINATION.

As Table 15 shows there is a slight gradation of responses according to the locus of the decision. Higher percentages are recorded for Current Perception responses in the FORMAL involvement categories for decisions related to Department committees (items 37 and 39), than for decisions related to Faculty committees (items 38 and 40) and to the involvement of students (item 42) in decisions. A similar pattern is evident for Preferred responses, with the exception of involvement of students in decisions which scores the second highest percentage of responses in the FORMAL involvement categories.

Table 15: Total Percentage Responses in All Categories for Current (C.) and Preferred (P.) Involvement in Decision-Making in Intra-Faculty Organization (n =100)

Item	Responses									
	NONE		DISCUSSION		CONSULTATION		JOINT ACTION		DETERMINATION	
	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.	C.	P.
36	26	9	35	12	24	36	14	41	1	2
37	5	1	14	9	20	19	42	52	19	19
38	12	5	20	15	21	21	38	51	9	8
39	8	5	18	14	28	28	24	30	22	23
40	12	5	23	15	22	27	27	37	16	16
41	19	7	30	19	23	29	26	42	2	3
42	14	5	19	8	17	23	42	54	8	10

In items 36 and 41 which are concerned with the establishment and maintenance of administrative structures and procedures, scores tend to be lower in FORMAL involvement categories for both perceptions of the Current situation and the Preferred situation. In other words, not as many people currently perceive their involvement or prefer it as formal in decision-making relating to purely administrative aspects as they do in areas that appear, to be directly concerned with decisions that affect the instructor directly.

Faculty-Environment Interaction

In the decision area of Faculty-Environment Interaction the general trend of a diversity of responses, and of a 29% movement from INFORMAL to FORMAL categories when comparing Current and Preferred responses are again apparent. Fifty-five percent of responses indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium, and only 39% decisional deprivation.

Several aspects of the response pattern differ, however.

1. In the Current Perception scale the category most chosen is DISCUSSION (30%) rather than NONE (26%).

2. For both the Current and Preferred scales DETERMINATION attracts a notable response of at least 15% of choices.

3. Of all the decision areas identified, this is the

only one in which a number of respondents apparently indicate a desire for a lesser degree of involvement than they presently perceive as the case. In total numbers this movement is not great. Only 6% of responses indicate a condition of decisional saturation. Its importance derives from the fact that this is the only area where such a movement is consistent.

The movement is concerned mainly with the DETERMINATION category. Table 16 illustrates the percentage of Current and Preferred responses for items 44 - 50.

Table 16: Percentage Current and Preferred Responses in DETERMINATION category (n = 100)

Item	Current DETERMINATION	Preferred DETERMINATION	Difference
44	19	16	3
45	2	2	0
46	4	3	1
47	27	22	5
48	4	3	1
49	16	11	5
50	47	41	6

Thus, while the difference is very small, it does suggest a body of people who wish to decrease their level of decision involvement in this area. This appears more evident for items 47, 49 and 50 and to a lesser extent 44. These are the items concerned with personal involvement with people or institutions external to the University, either in the capacity of instructor or researcher. No explanation for this pattern is discernible from the questionnaires or interviews.

DECISIONAL DEPRIVATION SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

To this point the majority of discussion has centred around total response scores for all items, or for items within a decision area.

Such an approach tends to disguise important differences in responses to individual items, which may have implications for instructor involvement in decision-making. In an attempt to overcome this inadequacy Table 17 identifies 12 items, each of which attracted a majority of responses indicating decisional deprivation. It is noteworthy that seven of the questions are related to financial aspects of Faculty decision-making either in the form of budgetary planning or the seeking of extra funds for research and other projects. Specifically, two items scored more heavily than the others (32 and 33). These were concerned with short and long term budgetary planning within the Faculty.

Table 17: Items for Which a Majority of Responses Indicate a Condition of Decisional Deprivation (n = 100)

Item	% Scores Indicating Decisional Deprivation	Item Content
4	62	Appointment of other administrative staff.
6	52	Appointment of teaching staff in your department.
11	57	Evaluation of instructors in your department.
18	53	Acquiring and allocation of funds for research.
20	55	Determining numbers of staff of various departments.
29	60	Financial allocation for secretarial service.
32	68	Short range budgetary planning in Faculty.
33	65	Long range budgetary planning in Faculty
34	53	Short range budgetary planning in department.
35	57	Long range budgetary planning in department.
36	55	Modification of the Faculty administrative structure.
49	51	Seeking funds from outside agencies.

In the context of the comments of Department Chairmen noted earlier that there is little to be gained by involving instructors in financial decision-making, this area of decisional deprivation becomes quite significant. Certainly instructors generally have a perception of their role different from that expected by administrators. This perception appears to be one where instructors wish to act jointly to structure the spending priorities of the Faculty. Such a desire to modify spending priorities is illustrated by an interviewee's comment which is related to item 29, financial allocation for secretarial services (also a high scoring item on decisional deprivation).

> I would not mind increasing my work load by three hours a week if the money saved was spent on supplying extra secretarial services.

While the nature of this response is inherently interesting, what is most relevant is the implied desire for a reorganization of present spending policies.

The remaining five questions scoring high on decisional deprivation are concerned with staff policy, and especially with the employment of staff within the respondent's department; appointment of administrative staff and with numbers of appointments in other departments. There appears to be general concern for greater decision involvement in choosing those who influence either the development or maintenance of working conditions; fellow instructors with whom close working associations will be established; and in deciding the staff loadings in different subject areas and departments.

The only exception is item 11, which relates to the other items in that it is one in which instructors express their concern for involvement in quality control over the output of the department of which they are members. This may well imply a desire for some form of control over those aspects with implications for the Faculty's, department's and individual's reputation and prestige.

DECISIONAL EQUILIBRIUM SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

Table 18 identifies 17 items for which a majority of decisional equilibrium responses were made. In choosing the items in the Table an arbitrary cut off point of 65% of responses was chosen, solely because it seemed to be indicative of a desirable position within the Faculty regarding desires for involvement in decision-making.

The 17 items identified appear to fall into three categories.

1. Two items (5 and 7) are related to decisions about faculty members outside the respondent's department.

2. Nine items (13, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 42) are related to decisions allied to classroom involvement, or to personal participation in service activities. That is, a high level of decisional equilibrium exists in those areas traditionally defined in most universities as that of the instructor's personal preserve.

3. Five items (37, 38, 39, 40, 42) are related to decisions about intra-faculty organization, an area in which clearly identifiable and accepted structures which closely involve instructors have already been established.

DECISIONAL SATURATION SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

For no items were decisional saturation scores very high, suggesting that for the majority of decision areas

Table 18: Items for which a Majority of Responses Indicate a Condition of Decisional Equilibrium (n = 100)

Item	% Scores Indicating Decisional Equilibrium	Item Content
5	66	Appointment of all teaching staff outside department.
7	78	Promotions outside department.
13	74	Deciding the nature of courses and programs in department.
21	65	Allocation of students to classes.
22	66	Determination of class sizes in department.
23	64	Allocation of teaching assignments within own dept.
25	66	Establishment of schedule and timetable of classes you instruct.
26	82	Choice of classroom instructional practices within own department.
27	75	Determination of course pre-requisites.
28	71	Development of procedures for evaluation of students.
37	82	Establishment of department committees.
38	67	Establishment of Faculty of Education committees.
39	81	Appointment of staff to department committees.
40	73	Appointment of staff to Faculty of Education committees.
42	72	Determination of the student role in department governance.
46	68	Preparation of written materials by Faculty or department.
50	68	Participation in in-service activities.

faculty generally do not perceive themselves as having too much participation in decision-making. Table 19 indicates that for only three decision items were there more than 5% of decisional saturation responses.

Table 19: Items for which More Than 5% of Responses Indicate a Condition of Decisional Saturation (n = 100)

Item	% Scores Indicating Decisional Saturation	Item Content
47	7	Provision of in-service education for personnel outside the University.
49	8	Seeking funding from outside agencies.
50	9	Instructor participation in service activities outside the University.

Even with these items a check of individual responses indicated that there was no consistent pattern of responses by particular individuals which may have identified underlying reasons for the overall decisional saturation pattern.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the perceptions of and preferences for involvement in Faculty decision-making by faculty generally were described. The major points emerging from faculty responses to PART B of the questionnaire and to the interview questions posed to a random sample of interviewees were as follows:

1. While there was a diverse response to the questionnaire items considered in aggregate, in Current responses NONE was the category most chosen and DETERMINATION least chosen. The category most chosen for Preferred involvement was JOINT ACTION and least chosen was NONE.

2. There existed a group of perceived "haves" and "have nots" in decision-making involvement. The majority of perceived "have nots" desired greater involvement than they presently have.

3. The majority of respondents did not wish to have total control over Faculty decision-making. They did wish to have some formality in decision procedures, and expected their opinions to be formally recognized in the decision outcome.

4. Respondents perceived more current involvement, and, generally speaking, desired more involvement in activities related to their particular departments as compared to decisions related to other departments.

5. For all decision areas in the questionnaire there was an obvious movement of responses from perception of Current INFORMAL involvement to Preferred FORMAL levels of involvement. The range of movement varied from 40% of responses for the decision category Financial Planning and Policy to 18% for the decision Intra-Faculty

Organization and 20% for Academic Operations.

6. As is implied in the results referred to in (5) varying levels of decisional deprivation exist for each area. Only 28% of responses to items in Academic Operations indicated a condition of decisional deprivation. This was the area most closely identified by respondents as their own bailiwick. It was also the area, together with Intra-Faculty Organization, in which most respondents identified themselves as currently formally involved.

In the decision area of Financial Planning and Policy, however, a majority of responses (53%) indicated a condition of decisional deprivation. Despite this, respondents most often chose the category of CONSULTATION to describe the level of involvement preferred.

7. Intra-Faculty Organization and Academic Operations were the decision areas for which there were the greatest number of responses indicating a condition of decisional equilibrium (68%).

8. For the majority of decision areas DETERMINATION was chosen relatively few times. For the Faculty-Environment Interaction, however, 15% of responses were in this category for both Current and Preferred scales.

Further, of all the areas this was the only one to attract more than a few isolated responses indicating a condition of decisional saturation.

In the next chapter the preferences and perceptions of different groups within the Faculty are compared in an attempt to identify any influences different group membership may have on preferences and perceptions. Among the groups reported are: departments; males and females; administrators and instructors; professorial status; and age groups. In addition, an attempt is made to discover if response groupings other than those defined by normal demographic data exist. Finally, responses to decision items directly related to the individual respondent's department are compared to those specifically cited as referring to departments other than that of the respondent.

CHAPTER 6

THE RELATIONSHIP OF MEMBER VARIABLES TO PERCEPTIONS OF AND PREFERENCES FOR PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

In this chapter responses to interviews and to the questionnaire are analysed in terms of the differences apparent between the different groups within the Faculty. In particular, the following differences are described: between Administrators and Instructors; between Males and Females; among Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors; and among the various Departments. The differences in responses to items that are clearly in-department decisions, compared to those that are out-of-department decisions are analysed. The relationship between an instructor's response and his discipline-orientation is discussed. Finally, the results of an obverse factor analysis (Q technique) are reported in an attempt to discover if questionnaire responses can be understood in terms of group memberships other than those detailed above.

Three forms of statistical analysis are used to analyse the data by Faculty sub-groups. The total response pattern is presented in the form of a frequency polygon.

To describe differences between Current Perceptions and Preferred levels of involvement in decision-making, indexes of decisional deprivation, equilibrium and saturation are used. To achieve parsimony in analysing group differences among the responses for each decision area the results of a multiple discriminant analysis are reported. (This technique is described more fully in Chapter 3.)

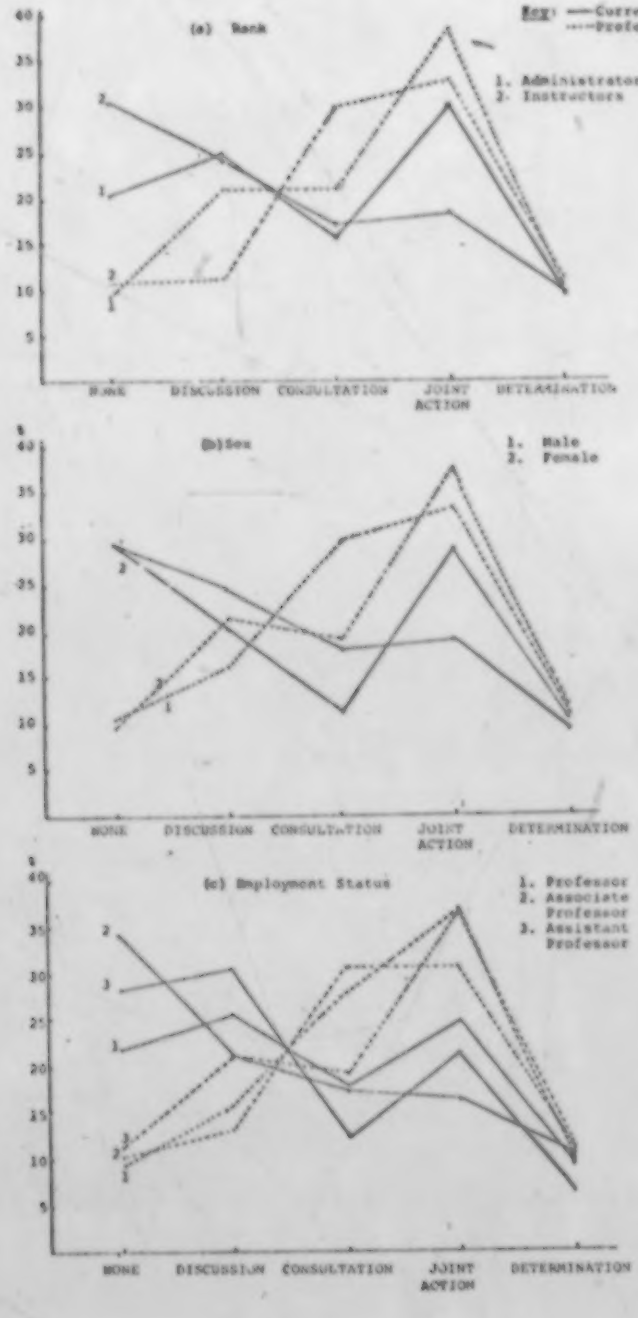
ADMINISTRATORS AND INSTRUCTORS

Total Responses

Figure 8(a) illustrates the percentage total of all responses in each decision category made by Administrators and Instructors. As a general indicator of their beliefs about Current instructor involvement and Preferred instructor involvement several trends are evident:

1. Instructors chose INFORMAL involvement categories more often than Administrators as a description of their perceived Current involvement. For Instructors NONE was the category most often chosen. For Administrators JOINT ACTION was most often chosen, although their response pattern was bi-modal, with DISCUSSION being chosen almost equally with JOINT ACTION. This supports the concept of perceived "haves" and "have nots" in decision-making previously referred to in Chapter 5.

Figure 8: Percentage Totals of All Current and Preferred Responses by Member Variables



2. For Preferred involvement the most frequently chosen category by both Administrators and Instructors was JOINT ACTION. However, 30% of Instructors' responses chose the category CONSULTATION; indicating a preference for FORMAL involvement, but not necessarily total control over, nor formal responsibility for, the final decision.

3. A greater percentage of Administrators' responses (31%) chose INFORMAL categories as the Preferred instructor involvement than did Instructors' responses (20%). (N.B. Administrators were asked to estimate Current and Preferred instructor involvement, not their own involvement.)

4. DETERMINATION as a Preferred involvement category was chosen relatively few times by both Administrators and Instructors.

Total Decisional Condition Scores

The condition of decisional deprivation existing among instructors that is suggested in Figure 8(a) by the discrepancy between Current and Preferred levels of involvement responses is supported by Table 20.

A large minority of Instructors' responses (43%) indicated a condition of decisional deprivation. Only slightly in excess of 50% of responses indicated a condition of decisional equilibrium, or satisfaction with the Current level of involvement in decision-making.

In contrast a large majority of Administrators' responses indicated generally a condition of decisional equilibrium (78%) and only 2% indicated a condition of decisional saturation. In other words, in the view of Administrators, Instructors generally are involved at an appropriate level in most decision-making areas. Instructors, however, indicate that they are not involved to the level they would prefer.

Table 20: Total Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Administrators and Instructors

Condition	Administrators (n = 12)	Instructors (n = 88)
Deprivation	20.4	43.19
Equilibrium	77.55	53.46
Saturation	2.05	3.35

Scores on Decisional Categories

To reduce the number of variables to be discussed a multiple discriminant analysis was made of scores by rank for each decision category. There being only two ranks, one discriminant function was identified which accounted for 100% of the variance. The function is presented in Appendix E.

The discriminant function illustrates that four scores contributed more heavily to group differences than the others. These scores were Current Perceptions of Faculty

Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy, and Preferred involvement in Faculty Status and Intra-Faculty Organization.

The mean score for Administrators on the function was 8.377 and for Instructors 4.763. Thus, in those decision areas which contribute most heavily to the differentiation between responses Administrators score higher than Instructors on their Current Perception of instructor involvement in Faculty Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy, and in their Preferred instructor involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization. Instructors score higher in their Preferred level of involvement in Faculty Status.

At least two features of these results are important:

1. They reflect the overall pattern referred to earlier of Administrators currently perceiving greater instructor involvement than do Instructors.

2. Instructors prefer a greater level of involvement in determining Faculty Status than Administrators believe they should have.

Decisional Condition for Individual Decision Areas

The decisional condition scores for individual decision areas for Administrators and Instructors reflect the pattern of total decisional condition. As Table 21 illustrates, Administrator responses indicate perceptions of lesser conditions of decisional deprivation than do those of instructors.

Table 21: Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Individual Decision Areas for Administrators and Instructors

Decision Category	Decisional Condition	Administrators (n = 12)	Instructors (n = 88)
Faculty Recruitment	Deprivation	22.22	57.19
	Equilibrium	77.78	40.92
	Saturation		1.89
Faculty Status	Deprivation	18.05	44.69
	Equilibrium	81.95	53.22
	Saturation		2.09
Academic Planning and Policy	Deprivation	31.26	43.04
	Equilibrium	67.70	52.84
	Saturation	1.04	4.12
Academic Operations	Deprivation	9.37	31.82
	Equilibrium	90.63	65.20
	Saturation		2.98
Financial Planning and Policy	Deprivation	21.43	58.28
	Equilibrium	76.19	39.77
	Saturation	2.38	1.95
Intra-Faculty Organization	Deprivation	11.90	30.85
	Equilibrium	84.53	65.42
	Saturation	3.57	3.73
Faculty-Environment Interaction	Deprivation	28.57	40.42
	Equilibrium	64.29	53.41
	Saturation	7.14	6.17

1. In the decision areas of Faculty Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy a majority of Instructors' responses indicated an existing condition of decisional deprivation. Administrators' responses do not indicate such a perception, however, over 75% of

of responses in each category indicating a condition of decisional equilibrium.

2. In the decision areas of Faculty Status, Academic Planning and Policy and Faculty-Environment Interaction only a bare majority of Instructor responses indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium. In each case more than 40% of responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation. Administrator responses heavily favor a condition of decisional equilibrium with no decision area having less than 64% of responses in this category and more than 32% in the decisional deprivation category.

3. In the areas of Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization more than 65% of Instructors' responses indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium. This is supported by the Administrators' responses. However, it is interesting to note that even in the area of Academic Operations, long claimed as the instructors' major decision area, 32% of responses indicated an existing condition of decisional deprivation. This area is also the one in which Administrators come closest in reaching unanimity in their perception of the instructors' decisional condition. Thus, over 90% of Administrators' responses indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium. When this is compared to the Instructors' responses the disparity of perceptions is once again evident, even in those areas where the responses most closely correspond.

Factors Underlying Conflicting Assessments

There are several possible explanations for these apparently conflicting assessments of the Instructors' decision role.

1. Because Administrators themselves are involved in some way in most decision-making it is possible they assume that their colleagues are similarly involved.

2. It may be that the role as perceived by Administrators is accurate, but that possibilities for such a role are not adequately communicated to Instructors, or not adequately perceived by them.

3. It may be that the structures established to facilitate the decision-making process, especially representative committees, are more likely to be perceived as being the equivalent of Instructor involvement by Administrators than by Instructors.

4. It may be that the manner in which decisions are reached is so diffuse and consequently vague in nature that although Instructors have played a role in making a decision, their role is hard to identify in the final decision outcome.

Interviews, allied with the questionnaire responses, provide support for all four suggested explanations as part of the key to the apparent conflict. Thus, while several Administrators interviewed insisted that generally speaking Instructor involvement was as comprehensive as possible, at least two Instructors declined either to respond to the questionnaire or to be interviewed on the grounds that they knew so little about the Faculty's decision-making processes that their participation would not be worthwhile. Further, while an appreciation of the need for representative committees to facilitate decision-making was acknowledged by many, doubt was expressed about the actual representativeness of such bodies.

> This Faculty is no different to others. There are undercurrents behind the decision-making scene. The more involved one becomes the more involved he becomes. An instructor may choose to become involved in one decision and ends up in many. This works to exclude people as well.
>
> Involvement is a factor of age and experience. This is frustrating for those who do not know how to get started.... Thus the young and many females are excluded. They have to learn how to participate in decisions and will suffer total frustration until they learn how to make the system work.

Finally, several interviewees emphasized the difficulty of Instructors identifying their roles in decision processes.

> I want to repeat the observation about the vagueness, diffuseness of decision-making within the University which makes it difficult for anyone to feel they have been involved in an important decision. It is difficult to see what impact your input has had.
>
> In the Faculty viewpoints are so diverse that it is almost impossible for the organization to satisfy everyone. Therefore it may appear that faculty involvement hasn't had much of an impact.

MALES AND FEMALES

Total Responses

Figure 8(b) illustrates several general indications of the beliefs of Males and Females about their Current and Preferred involvement in decision-making.

1. Males chose INFORMAL categories more often than FORMAL in describing their Current level of decisional involvement. Females, however, chose FORMAL categories marginally more often than INFORMAL. For Males the categories chosen most often were NONE and DISCUSSION; for Females NONE and JOINT ACTION.

2. For Preferred Involvement the most often chosen category by both sexes was JOINT ACTION. However, there was an important difference in movement of responses from Current to Preferred choices. For Males 27% of responses moved from INFORMAL categories in Current Perception to FORMAL categories in Preferred Involvement. For Females there was a movement of only 18% indicating the possibility for many of contentment with an INFORMAL level of involvement.

3. Almost 30% of Males chose CONSULTATION as their Preferred level of involvement. However, only 19% of Females chose this category, and chose both JOINT ACTION and DETERMINATION more often than Males.

Total Decisional Condition Scores

The differences in decisional condition between Males and Females suggested by the discrepancies in total response scores referred to above are illustrated in Table 22.

Table 22: Total Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Males and Females

Condition	Males (n = 87)	Females (n = 13)
Deprivation	41.65	24.17
Equilibrium	54.86	78.89
Saturation	3.49	0.94

Although both Males and Females scored a majority of responses in the decisional equilibrium category, only 54% of Male responses indicated such a condition. However, 75% of Female responses indicated satisfaction with the existing level of involvement. This was despite the fact that 49% of all Female responses indicated a Current Perception of INFORMAL involvement in decision-making. Further, less than one percent of Female responses indicated a condition of decisional saturation. These figures suggest the existence of two levels of expectation for involvement in decision-making by Female faculty.

1. There appears to exist one group who are informally involved and are content to maintain that position.

2. There appears to exist one group who are formally involved and who wish to maintain or improve that status. That is, although they are heavily involved, they have no desire to reduce the level of involvement.

Male responses, however, indicate a very different situation, with 42% of responses indicating a condition of decisional deprivation.

Scores on Decisional Categories

The discriminant function of the scores of Males and Females (Appendix E) illustrates that one score contributed far more heavily to group differences than the others. This score was for Preferred Involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization. Mean scores on the function were 3.236 and 5.717 for Males and Females respectively. Thus the main distinguishing factor between the Males and Females seems to be the Females' preference for a higher level of decision-making involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization.

This preference is supported by reactions noted in interviews and typified by one comment:

> At Faculty level women have been neglected compared with young men with less to offer ... Women have had to fight to get on committees of G.F.C. ... If you are a young man you have more chance than a woman ... Women tend to be on volunteer committees, while men dominate elected committees.

One Female interviewee also referred to the "male domination of the nominating committee," implying strongly that Female instructors were disadvantaged in gaining membership on the various committees. If this perception is prevalent, it is not surprising that Females would prefer a high level of involvement in decision-making regarding Intra-Faculty Organization.

Decisional Condition of Males and Females for Individual Decision Areas

Table 23 illustrates the decisional condition indexes for Males and Females.

Table 23: Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Individual Decision Areas for Males and Females

Decision Category	Decisional Condition	Males (n = 87)	Females (n = 13)
Faculty Recruitment	Deprivation	47.11	23.07
	Equilibrium	50.96	75.64
	Saturation	1.93	1.29
Faculty Status	Deprivation	43.10	30.77
	Equilibrium	54.90	67.94
	Saturation	1.91	1.29
Academic Planning and Policy	Deprivation	43.84	22.88
	Equilibrium	52.15	71.15
	Saturation	4.01	0.97
Academic Operations	Deprivation	30.46	20.19
	Equilibrium	66.66	78.84
	Saturation	2.88	0.97
Financial Planning and Policy	Deprivation	56.66	35.17
	Equilibrium	41.05	64.83
	Saturation	2.29	
Intra-Faculty Organization	Deprivation	30.87	12.08
	Equilibrium	64.86	87.92
	Saturation	4.27	
Faculty-Environment Interaction	Deprivation	41.88	20.99
	Equilibrium	51.39	76.92
	Saturation	6.73	2.09

These reflect the pattern of total responses referred to earlier, with Males making higher percentage responses indicating decisional deprivation for all decision areas.

In no area does a majority of Female responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation, and only in one area, Financial Planning and Policy, does the percentage score exceed one third of the total. However, a majority of Male responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation in Financial Planning and Policy and only in the areas of Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization do responses indicating decisional deprivation fall below 33%. For both Males and Females these two areas are those for which the highest percentage of responses indicating decisional equilibrium are made.

Thus, in all decision areas, the Male instructors are more likely than Female instructors to view themselves as less involved than they would prefer to be in decision processes. Female instructors are more likely than Males to view themselves as involved at an acceptable level in all decision areas.

Faculty Structure and Study Design Influences on Assessments

There is no doubt that Males tend to view their role in decision-making more pessimistically than do the Females, at least in terms of their preferred role compared to their currently perceived role. It is unlikely that this can be explained in terms of an inherent difference between males and females as much as in terms of the Faculty structure and the study design. Two points are relevant to any explanation of differences in response:

1. Relative to Males there are very few Females employed in the Faculty (15% of the total population for this study). Of these a slightly smaller percentage responded to the questionnaire than did Males (66% compared to 72%). Thus, it would take smaller numbers of Female than Male instructors holding a particular perception to have a distinct influence on a total percentage score.

2. It is likely that respondents who are involved in formally established Faculty committees will perceive themselves as more heavily involved than will those who are not. Only two of the Females so involved were not respondents to this study. Consequently, it is likely that greater numbers of Males than Females would not perceive themselves as involved, at least in the particular decision areas of their formal involvement.

PROFESSORS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSORS AND ASSISTANT PROFESSORS

Total Responses

Figure 8(c) illustrates several general indications of the beliefs of Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors about their Current and Preferred involvement in decision-making.

1. In describing their Current level of involvement both Professors and Assistant Professors chose DISCUSSION most often. Associate Professors chose NONE. However,

the percentage responses for each accounted for only a third or less of the total possible responses.

2. For Preferred Involvement the category most often chosen by all groups was JOINT ACTION. For Associate Professors, however, nearly equal numbers chose CONSULTATION, whereas for Professors and Assistant Professors there was a clear difference of at least 9% of choices between JOINT ACTION and the category chosen next most often.

3. By making the distinction between FORMAL and INFORMAL categories a slightly clearer pattern of responses emerges. In describing instructors' Current level of involvement a majority of both Assistant and Associate Professors' responses indicated a perception of INFORMAL involvement, with 59% and 55% of responses respectively being in this category. However, 52% of Professors' responses indicated a Current Perception of FORMAL involvement of instructors in decision-making. While the magnitude of the differences is not great, it is sufficient to suggest that, overall, Professors are more likely to perceive instructors as formally involved in decision-making than are Associate and Assistant Professors.

Such a perception is supported by interview responses, in which interviewees identified characteristics of those they saw as more involved than others in the decision-making.

> There cannot be equality of involvement in major decisions. There is a pecking order affected by the nature of a person's position in the Faculty.... size of the Department.... rank increases the opportunity to participate.... prestige acquired within or outside the Faculty. Some people have more clout than others, for example, Department Chairman, Co-ordinator, Professor .

The characteristics described here, and supported by many others, are more likely to describe the role of Professor, than that of the Assistant Professor.

4. In describing Preferred levels of involvement all three groups made a majority of responses in the FORMAL categories. Professors and Associate Professors have similar percentage scores (76%). However, only 66% of Assistant Professors' responses were in FORMAL categories, indicating for one third of responses a contentment with INFORMAL levels of involvement.

Total Decisional Condition Scores

Table 24 illustrates total decisional condition percentage scores for Professors, Associate and Assistant Professors.

Although all three groups scored a majority of responses in the decisional equilibrium category this majority was not large with no group scoring more than 62% in the category. Professors and Associate Professors scored 59% and 55% respectively.

Scores of decisional deprivation were relatively even among groups, although Associate Professors scored 43%, 5% higher than Assistant Professors, and 7% higher than

Professors. This discrepancy becomes more meaningful when it is recognized that Associate Professors were the largest group of respondents.

Table 24: Total Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors

Condition	Professors (n = 37)	Associate Professors (n = 50)	Assistant Professors (n = 13)
Deprivation	35.83	42.60	37.50
Equilibrium	58.68	55.27	61.55
Saturation	5.49	2.13	0.95

Finally, a small but important number of Professors' responses indicated a condition of decisional saturation, compared to the other groups, suggesting that if there is dissatisfaction with too much involvement in decision-making that it is more likely to be among Professors than others.

Scores on Decisional Categories

One discriminant function accounted for over 80% of the variance among groups (see Appendix E). The function demonstrated that four decision areas contributed far more heavily to response variance than did the others. These were Current Perception of involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization (positively weighted); Faculty

Recruitment (negatively weighted; Faculty-Environment Interaction (negatively weighted); and in Preferred Involvement in Faculty-Environment Interaction (positively weighted). Mean scores on the function for Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors were -2.159, 1.476 and -2.325 respectively. Thus, the main distinguishing factors among group scores on the individual categories were:

1. The Associate Professors' perception of a higher Current level of involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization and a higher Preferred level of involvement in Faculty-Environment Interaction than that held by both Professors and Assistant Professors.

2. The Associate Professors' Current Perception of lesser involvement in the decision-making in Faculty Recruitment and Faculty-Environment Interaction than the perception held by Professors and Assistant Professors.

Decisional Condition of Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors for Individual Decision Areas

Table 25 illustrates the decisional condition indexes for employment statuses.

In no decision areas do Professors indicate a majority condition of decisional deprivation although in one area, Financial Planning and Policy, 45% of responses indicate such a condition. Only in the area of Financial Planning and Policy do Assistant Professors' responses of

Table 25: Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Individual Decision Areas for Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors

Decision Category	Decisional Condition	Professors (n = 37)	Associate Professors (n = 50)	Assistant Professors (n = 13)
Faculty Recruitment	Deprivation	35.43	51.67	39.75
	Equilibrium	62.33	47.33	56.41
	Saturation	2.24	1.00	3.84
Faculty Status	Deprivation	39.19	46.00	30.77
	Equilibrium	57.20	53.33	67.94
	Saturation	3.61	0.67	1.29
Academic Planning and Policy	Deprivation	39.19	44.25	39.42
	Equilibrium	55.74	52.50	61.53
	Saturation	5.07	3.25	0.96
Academic Operations	Deprivation	28.05	28.50	34.62
	Equilibrium	68.58	69.00	64.42
	Saturation	3.37	2.50	0.96
Financial Planning and Policy	Deprivation	44.78	61.15	51.64
	Equilibrium	49.81	38.85	48.36
	Saturation	5.41		
Intra-Faculty Organization	Deprivation	29.35	28.00	35.16
	Equilibrium	61.77	71.14	64.84
	Saturation	8.88	0.86	
Faculty-Environment Interaction	Deprivation	37.67	42.28	32.96
	Equilibrium	54.44	51.72	67.04
	Saturation	8.89	6.00	

decisional deprivation reach a majority (51%). A majority of Associate Professors' responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation in *Financial Planning and Policy* (61%) and *Faculty Recruitment* (52%). However, in contrast to both Professors and Assistant Professors who have relatively low decisional deprivation scores, Associate Professors score more than 42% of such responses in all decision areas except *Academic Operations* and *Intra-Faculty Organization*.

The decision areas of *Academic Operations* and *Intra-Faculty Organization* are also those which attract the lowest percentage of decisional deprivation responses from Professors. In contrast, however, Assistant Professors score somewhat higher in these areas.

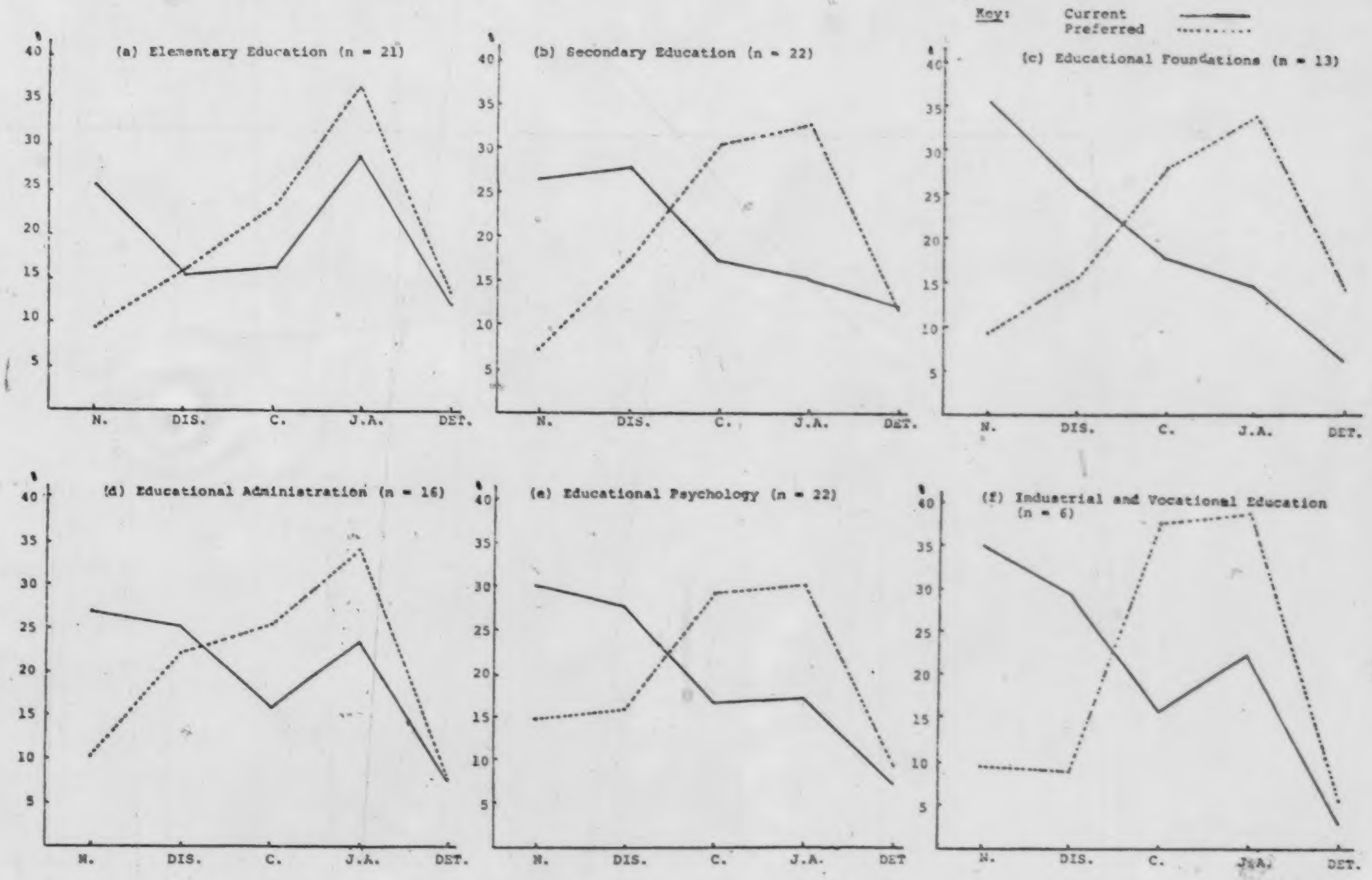
Finally, it should be noted that even though for most groups, in most decision areas, the majority of responses indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium, for no decision area is there an overwhelming response indicating decisional equilibrium. This suggests that any discontent with present levels of involvement tend~~s~~ to be spread generally over all decision areas rather than being issue specific.

DEPARTMENTS

Total Responses

Figure 9 illustrates several general indications

Figure 9: Percentage Totals of All Current and Preferred Responses by Department



of the perceptions of the faculty of various Departments regarding their Current and Preferred involvement in decision-making.

1. In describing the Current level of involvement in decision-making the categories of either NONE or DISCUSSION were chosen most often by all Departments except Elementary Education. This Department chose JOINT ACTION most often, although only marginally more often than NONE. Similarly, all Departments except Elementary Education chose INFORMAL categories for a majority of responses describing their decisional involvement.

2. For Preferred Involvement all Departments chose JOINT ACTION most often, although Secondary Education, Educational Psychology and Industrial and Vocational Education chose CONSULTATION almost as often. All Departments chose FORMAL involvement categories in more than 66% of responses and only Educational Administration and Educational Psychology chose them in less than 75% of cases.

3. Analysis of the movement of responses from INFORMAL categories in Current Perception to FORMAL categories in Preferred Involvement indicates that responses tend to cluster the Departments into three groups. Elementary Education and Educational Administration with shifts of 16% and 20% respectively have relatively small percentages of responses indicating discrepancies between Current Perceptions and Preferred Involvement preferences.

Secondary Education and Educational Psychology form distinctively higher percentage shifts of 29% and 27%, while Educational Foundations and Industrial and Vocational Education have quite high percentage shifts of 37% and 39% respectively.

4. Educational Administration, the Department with the second lowest percentage of responses (54%) in INFORMAL categories in Current Perception, has the largest percentage of responses in INFORMAL categories for Preferred Involvement, which suggests slightly greater levels of contentment with INFORMAL involvement, relative to other Departments.

Total Decisional Condition Scores

Several of the differences in overall decisional condition of the various Departments suggested by the total response pattern are clarified by the total decisional condition index for each Department, illustrated in Table 26.

Although the three groupings of Departments referred to above in (3) are not as clear it is apparent that Elementary Education and Educational Administration have similar response patterns largely indicating conditions of decisional equilibrium. In each case less than a third of the responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation. Secondary Education, Educational Psychology, and Industrial and Vocational Education all score hign percentages indicating decisional deprivation. However, while both Secondary Education and Industrial and Vocational Education have small majorities of decisional equilibrium responses, Educational Psychology has a relatively large percentage (8%) of responses indicating decisional saturation, thereby reducing the percentage of responses indicating decisional equilibrium.

Table 26: Total Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Individual Departments

Condition	Elementary Education (n = 21)	Secondary Education (n = 22)	Educational Foundations (n = 13)	Educational Administration (n = 16)	Educational Psychology (n = 22)	Industrial & Vocational Ed. (n = 6)
Deprivation	27.69	42.19	51.34	31.60	44.33	46.25
Equilibrium	70.85	55.38	46.79	65.96	48.12	52.72
Saturation	1.46	2.43	1.87	2.44	7.55	1.03

Educational Foundations stands alone as the only Department with a majority of scores indicating a condition of decisional deprivation. At least two possible reasons exist which may explain this:

1. These high scores on decisional deprivation may be partly explained by changing structural aspects of

the Department, and consequently may not be an appropriate assessment of the actual existing situation. As noted by one interviewee:

> There has been a change over time towards more openness and participation, compared to a situation where seniors exerted more power than juniors. This is changing and power is now dispersed throughout the levels.

At the time of the study a new committee structure was being formed to replace the old, which, the Department Chairman claimed:

> ... not often brought information back to the Department as a whole. Rather they acted for and on behalf of the Department Assembly. Consequently if a person had no place on committees this would affect his perception of involvement greatly.

Thus, some responses by the faculty of Educational Foundations may well reflect a situation acknowledged by interviewees to have existed prior to the impending change noted above. If the modification was implemented as explained it would be reasonable to expect that on another questionnaire, responses indicating decisional deprivation would be reduced.

2. A partial explanation may also rest in the composition of the staff and the resultant decision structures of the Department of Educational Foundations. The Department is staffed by scholars in education-related disciplines, more than in the other departments. Each discipline represented in the Department constitutes a sub-group, which is headed by a co-ordinator. When Department-wide committees are elected each sub-group

has a representative. Such a process emphasizes the notion of interest groups in decision-making. It also means that it will be highly unlikely that most decisions will be satisfactory to the majority of groups represented.

If such is the case, it is conceivable that this will lead to perceptions of decisional deprivation in many decision areas.

This study, while identifying such a possibility, provided no formal evidence to support this. Thus, as an explanation it must remain only as conjecture.

Scores on Decisional Categories

Three discriminant functions account for 88% of the variance between individual Department scores for each decision area (see Appendix E). In Discriminant Function I which accounts for 43% of the variance, one score, Current Perception of Academic Operations is weighted at least twice as heavily as any other. Table 27 indicates the mean scores of individual Departments on this function.

Table 27: Mean Scores of Individual Departments on Discriminant Function I

Department	Mean
Elementary Education	7.053
Secondary Education	10.572
Educational Foundations	1.715
Educational Administration	10.013
Educational Psychology	3.522
Industrial & Vocational Education	2.663

The Departments cluster in two groups for this function. Elementary Education, Secondary Education and Educational Administration score higher in their Current Perceptions of a more formal level of involvement in decision-making in Academic Operations than do Educational Foundations, Educational Psychology, and Industrial and Vocational Education.

One interesting feature of this is that despite the claims that traditionally and presently Academic Operations is the bailiwick of the instructors, it is certainly not viewed in such a unanimous way by instructors in each of the Departments.

In Discriminant Function II which accounts for 28% of the variance, two scores, Current Perception of Faculty Recruitment and Preferred Involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization are clearly weighted more heavily than the others. The mean scores for individual Departments are indicated in Table 28.

Table 28: Mean Scores of Individual Departments on Discriminant Function II

Department	Mean
Elementary Education	12.812
Secondary Education	7.570
Educational Foundations	9.187
Educational Administration	7.667
Educational Psychology	7.477
Industrial & Vocational Education	5.998

Thus, for this function Elementary Education scores higher in Current Perceptions of FORMAL involvement in Faculty Recruitment and in Preferred Involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization than do the other Departments. Industrial and Vocational Education tend to score lower relative to the remaining Departments which cluster together.

In Discriminant Function III which accounts for 17% of the variance, one score, Current Perception of involvement in Financial Planning and Policy is weighted (negatively) far more heavily than the others. Table 29 indicates the mean scores for individual Departments on this function.

Table 29: Mean Scores of Individual Departments on Discriminant Function III

Department	Mean
Elementary Education	- 8.485
Secondary Education	- 8.759
Educational Foundations	- 6.385
Educational Administration	- 5.718
Educational Psychology	- 7.008
Industrial & Vocational Education	-12.879

Remembering that Current Perception of Financial Planning and Policy is weighted negatively, Table 29 suggests that Industrial and Vocational Education are more likely to score high in their Current Perception of involvement in decision-making relating to Financial Planning and Policy than are the other Departments.

Decisional Condition by Department for Individual Decision Areas

Table 30 illustrates the decisional condition percentages for individual Departments in the various decision areas. Several features which emphasize the clustering of Departments according to decisional condition generally and to decision areas specifically are noteworthy.

1. Elementary Education scores low on decisional deprivation in all areas. Only in Financial Planning and Policy do more than 30% of responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation.

2. Although scoring slightly higher in decisional deprivation in most decision areas than Elementary Education, Educational Administration nevertheless has a low scoring pattern similar to Elementary Education. In only one area, Financial Planning and Policy, do a majority of responses indicate a condition of decisional deprivation. Thus, Elementary Education and Educational Administration cluster together as Departments which respond in similar fashion to specific decision areas.

3. The pattern of the remaining four groups of responses indicate a similarity of response pattern. Generally, more than 40% of responses of individual

Table 30: Decisional Condition Percentage Scores for Individual Decision Areas for Departments

Decision Category	Decisional Condition	Elementary Education (n = 21)	Secondary Education (n = 22)	Educational Foundations (n = 13)	Educational Administration (n = 16)	Educational Psychology (n = 22)	Industrial & Vocational Education (n = 6)
Faculty Recruitment	Deprivation	27.78	53.78	47.43	39.59	48.48	52.78
	Equilibrium	70.63	46.22	50	57.29	48.48	47.22
	Saturation	1.59		2.57	3.12	3.04	
Faculty Status	Deprivation	28.57	45.45	57.69	33.34	45.12	44.44
	Equilibrium	70.64	53.03	42.31	66.66	48.12	55.56
	Saturation	0.79	1.52			6.76	
Academic Planning & Policy	Deprivation	25.00	53.41	50.95	37.51	42.04	47.92
	Equilibrium	71.43	45.46	49.05	59.37	49.43	47.92
	Saturation	3.57	1.13		3.12	8.53	4.16
Academic Operations	Deprivation	22.03	21.59	46.15	12.5	42.04	41.67
	Equilibrium	77.38	72.72	51.93	86.72	53.98	58.33
	Saturation	0.59	5.69	1.92	0.78	3.98	
Financial Planning & Policy	Deprivation	45.57	61.03	59.35	56.25	54.54	35.71
	Equilibrium	54.43	38.97	40.65	43.75	36.37	64.29
	Saturation					9.09	
Intra-Faculty Organization	Deprivation	18.36	25.98	41.76	19.64	35.72	42.85
	Equilibrium	81.64	72.73	52.75	78.57	53.25	57.15
	Saturation		1.29	5.49	1.79	11.03	
Faculty-Environment Interaction	Deprivation	27.90	38.32	57.15	25.89	43.50	61.91
	Equilibrium	68.70	55.19	39.56	66.07	46.11	38.09
	Saturation	3.40	6.49	3.29	8.04	10.39	

Department members to specific decision areas indicate conditions of decisional deprivation.

For Secondary Education only Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization have less than 40% decisional deprivation responses. Three areas, Faculty Recruitment, Academic Planning and Policy and Financial Planning and Policy attract a majority of responses indicating decisional deprivation.

For Industrial and Vocational Education only Financial Planning and Policy attracts less than 40% of responses indicating decisional deprivation. Faculty Recruitment and Faculty-Environment Interaction attract a majority of responses indicating such a condition.

For Educational Psychology, while only one area, Financial Planning and Policy, attracts a majority of responses, only one area, Intra-Faculty Organization, attracts less than 40% of responses indicating a condition of decisional deprivation.

For Educational Foundations not one area attracts less than 40% of responses indicating a condition of decisional deprivation. Four areas, Faculty Status, Academic Planning and Policy, Financial Planning and Policy and Faculty-Environment Interaction attract a majority of responses indicating such a condition.

4. Financial Planning and Policy is outstanding for the number of decisional deprivation responses attracted from five Departments. Except for the

Department of Industrial and Vocational Education this decision area attracted the highest percentage of decisional deprivation scores of any decision area for each Department. In contrast it attracted the lowest percentage responses for Industrial and Vocational Education. The Department Chairman of Industrial and Vocational Education describes financial decision-making as a process of Chairman decision after discussion, and as a co-operative decision-making process which depends upon the Professors' abilities to demonstrate a need for finance. In a Department as small as this (11 members) such a situation should be easily perceived, and consequently reflected in individual responses. It should also be noted, of course, that the number of respondents from Industrial and Vocational Education was very low.

5. One feature supporting observations made earlier is the surprisingly high percentage responses indicating decisional deprivation in the area of Academic Operations by Educational Psychology, Educational Foundations, and Industrial and Vocational Education. In each case scores exceed 40% compared to scores of less than 25% for the other Departments, and especially to a 12.5% score by Educational Administration.

RESPONSES TO INVOLVEMENT IN IN-DEPARTMENT DECISIONS COMPARED TO OUT-OF-DEPARTMENT DECISIONS

In Chapter 5 it was noted that differences in the focus of decisions appeared to have some influence on responses to PART B of the questionnaire. Especially when respondents indicated the Preferred levels of involvement they appeared to choose FORMAL levels more often for what were clearly in-department decisions, than for out-of-department decisions. To check this, fifteen items on the questionnaire were identified as clearly indicating that the particular decision had an in-department focus. Six were identified as clearly having an out-of-department focus. See Appendix F for identification of the items.

Table 31 illustrates total percentage responses for Current Perception of and Preferred Involvement in decision-making in these two categories.

Not unexpectedly, a majority of responses indicate a Current Perception of FORMAL involvement in in-department decisions compared to INFORMAL involvement in out-of-department decisions. The discrepancy in response is more apparent in responses indicating Preferred Involvement, with 80% of responses indicating a desire for FORMAL involvement in in-department decisions compared to 43% in out-of-department decisions. This apparent higher expectation for involvement in decision-making relevant

Table 31: Total Percentage Responses for Current Perception of and Preferred Involvement in In-Department and Out-of-Department Decision-Making (n = 100)

Category	NONE	DISCUSSION	CONSULTATION	JOINT ACTION	DETERMINATION	INFORMAL	FORMAL
In-Department Current	19.73	21.34	17.8	24.46	14.67	41.07	58.93
Out-of-Department Current	60.83	17.5	8.33	12.5	0.84	78.33	21.67
In-Department Preferred	5.8	13.94	23.06	37.94	19.26	19.74	80.26
Out-of-Department Preferred	32.67	24.0	21.67	19.5	2.16	56.67	43.33

to the Department is emphasized further when it is noted that three of the out-of-department decision items contribute more heavily to a preference for FORMAL involvement than do the other three. The decision items (4, 14 and 20) refer to areas which may have a direct influence on the functioning of the respondent's particular Department, e.g., Appointment of other administrative staff such as the Associate Dean (whose planning decisions will influence the Department); deciding the nature of courses and programs to be offered in other Departments (which may overlap with other courses already offered); and determining numbers of staff of various Departments (more staff in one Department may mean relatively fewer in another).

Such a differentiation between expectations for different types of decisions has at least one implication for Faculty organization. A sub-committee of the Long Range Planning Committee (1973) noted:

> Many people shared the opinion that the boundaries, that is, the formal lines that separate one Department from another, are creating a great many problems.
> There were questions raised regarding overlap of courses, among other kinds of activities, research activities, etc. that staff members engage in.... The comments that did arise all sought to engage the question alluded to above, that is, how can we provide for innovation, how can we provide for crossing departmental divisional boundaries to produce viable methods of dealing with current issues.

The concern about overlap seems evident in the questionnaire responses. However, concern about boundaries is not so evident. Respondents generally appear to have established perceptual and preferred boundaries within which they prefer involvement, at least in decision-making, to be retained. If the boundaries were changed to account for overlap, it would seem possible that one result may well be merely the re-establishment of new perceptual and preferred boundaries within which to contain decision-making.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF DISCIPLINE-ORIENTATION TO INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTORS' PREFERENCES

In the Literature Review (Chapter 2) it was noted that there appeared to be some relationship between an instructor's orientation to his discipline and a lack of desire for involvement in decision-making. In an attempt to measure this, a scale devised by Wilensky (1964) and modified as indicated in Chapter 3 was administered to the Faculty. Scores were then correlated with individual responses to the Preferred Involvement categories in PART B of the questionnaire. Table 32 indicates that only 15 items had correlations of more than 0.1 or less than -0.1 . Of these only four exceeded 0.2 and one was less than -0.2.

Such correlations are small in absolute terms. However, three features of these suggest some caution in outright rejection of them as meaningful figures.

Table 32: Items on the Preferred Involvement Scale Correlated with Discipline-Orientation

Item	Content	Co-efficient
1	Appointment of Faculty Dean	0.20
2	Appointment of teaching staff outside Department	0.13
6	Appointment of teaching staff in Department	0.24
7	Promotions outside your Department	0.20
8	Promotions within your Department	0.20
9	Dismissal of staff	0.17
10	Evaluation and retention of probationary faculty within your Department	0.14
12	Evaluation of other instructors	0.18
17	Planning for and organization of audio-visual equipment	-0.23
24	Determination of own teaching hours	0.18
25	Establishment of class schedule and timetable	-0.11
27	Determination of course pre-requisites	0.10
44	Development of Faculty service activities to the community	0.16
49	Seeking funding from outside agencies	0.16
50	Instructor participation in service activities	0.14

The correlations pertain to the responses of a total population and therefore are true correlations rather than inferred correlations. Relative to the other 35 correlations between Preferred Involvement items and discipline orientation they have some substance. The remaining correlation co-efficients were all close to zero (see Appendix G) indicating virtually no relationship. Finally, there is some regularity in the pattern of items for which this slight relationship was indicated.

The two items indicating a negative relationship with discipline-orientation are concerned with purely administrative activities of organizing media and timetables.

Thirteen items indicating a positive relationship with discipline-orientation can be categorized into two groups. Eight items, including the four with co-efficients in excess of 0.2 were concerned with decisions related to appointment, promotion, evaluation and dismissal of personnel. Five items were concerned with professional activities relating to provision of courses and with activities affecting conditions of teaching and research involvement.

While acknowledging the tenuous nature of such slight correlation co-efficients, these results appear to suggest that highly discipline-oriented individual instructors have higher preferences for involvement in decision-making in activities related to the development and maintenance of the quality of the Faculty, Department and discipline, and thereby its prestige. However, they are less likely to be concerned with decisions relating to the facilitative aspects of such activities.

This provides one interesting paradox in that it suggests that while highly discipline-oriented instructors are concerned with activities such as appointment, promotion, evaluation and dismissal and by implication, deciding the "right" man for each Department position, they are not so concerned with many decisions which may well assist the "right" man to achieve maximum output in that position.

OTHER GROUP MEMBERSHIPS

The results reported to this point indicate that different group memberships do account for some differences that occur in Current Perceptions of and Preferred Involvement in decision-making. However, no one type of group membership appears to explain totally differences in response. Thus, an obverse factor analysis was employed to ascertain if responses could be explained in terms of group membership other than those previously discussed. The technique used is described in Chapter 3.

As a result of the analysis nine groups were identified according to their variations in response. Group size ranged from 35 in the largest to 2 in the smallest. In an attempt to identify the characteristics of each group, and thereby classify types of respondents, group members were compared on a variety of demographic features including age, sex, department, status, rank, years of service at the University, membership on formal committees, and combinations of these. No one, or combination of factors appeared to predominate in any group to the extent that that group could be typed.

This suggests that perceptions of and preferences for involvement in decision-making tend to be influenced more by factors other than the normal demographic factors noted here. Such factors are not identified in this study, although speculation based on implications drawn from interviews and analysis of questionnaire responses would suggest that personal, structural and process factors are all important but partial determinants of perceptions and preferences. Among these factors are the individual's perceptual acuity related to the field of decision-making; successful/unsuccessful involvement in decision-making attempts; faculty communication networks; evidence of involvement reflected in the outcomes of decisions; and proximity to decision influentials. The relationship of these to each other and examples of each will be discussed further in Chapter 9.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the perceptions of and preferences for involvement in Faculty decision-making by instructors as members of sex, rank, status, and Department groups were described. Responses to in-department items were compared to out-of-department items; the relationship between an instructor's response and his discipline-orientation was discussed; and questionnaire responses were analysed in terms of group memberships other than those detailed above. The major points emerging included:

1. Instructors chose INFORMAL categories more often in describing their perceived Current involvement than did Administrators. Administrators chose INFORMAL categories more often than did Instructors in describing the Preferred level of involvement.

2. A large minority of Instructors indicated conditions of perceived decisional deprivation, while Administrators generally perceived Instructors as being involved at an appropriate level. Two decision areas, Faculty Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy, attracted a majority of responses from Instructors indicating conditions of decisional deprivation. The areas of Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization attracted large percentage responses from Instructors indicating a condition of decisional equilibrium.

3. Apparent explanations of responses included problems of communicating involvement possibilities to Instructors; problems of Administrators equating their personal involvement with that of Instructors; problems of associating representative committees with decision involvement; and problems of diffuseness and vagueness of decision processes.

4. Males scored a majority of responses in INFORMAL categories in describing their Current Perception of decision involvement. Females, however, chose FORMAL categories marginally more often than INFORMAL. Both chose JOINT ACTION most often as the Preferred category,

although Males showed a tendency to choose CONSULTATION almost as often.

5. A majority of Female Instructors indicated conditions of decisional equilibrium. In no decision area did a majority of Females' responses indicate decisional deprivation. A majority of Males' responses indicated conditions of decisional deprivation in Financial Planning and Policy, and in all areas except Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization more than one third of the responses indicated decisional deprivation.

6. Females preferred higher levels of decision-making involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization than Males, perceiving that they were disadvantaged by the structures determining committee membership.

7. Professors were more likely to perceive Instructors as formally involved in decision-making than were Associate and Assistant Professors.

8. Overall decisional deprivation scores were relatively even between status groups with Associate Professors showing the highest percentage of 43% indicating this decisional condition. The discrepancy between scores is more meaningful when it is realized that there are more Associate Professors than any other group. Decisional saturation scores were relatively more prevalent among Professors than others, and Assistant Professors had the highest percentage of scores indicating decisional equilibrium.

9. In specific decision areas Associate Professors had a majority of responses indicating decisional deprivation in Financial Planning and Policy and Faculty Status; Assistant Professors in Financial Planning and Policy; and Professors in none.

10. Departments tended to cluster into two groups in their responses with Elementary Education and Educational Administration having relatively small percentages of responses indicating discrepancies between Current Perceptions and Preferred Involvement preferences. The two Departments also had similar response patterns largely indicating conditions of decisional equilibrium as compared to the other Departments.

11. The traditionally claimed "bailiwick" of instructors, Academic Operations, was not unanimously viewed in such a way by individual Departments with Educational Foundations, Educational Psychology, and Industrial and Vocational Education scoring lower than the other Departments in their Current Perception of involvement.

12. Respondents held a higher expectation for involvement in decision-making relevant to their individual Department than they did for involvement in decision-making relevant to other Departments and the Faculty. Apparently they equated boundaries of decision responsibility with the Department boundaries.

13. Although no strong relationship was shown

to exist, there was a positive relationship between individual instructor's discipline-orientation and items relating to Faculty appointment, promotion, evaluation and dismissal and to teaching and service activities. Negative relations existed with planning of audio-visual aids and constructing class schedules.

14. An obverse factor analysis showed that a group membership other than that defined by any single demographic variable discussed above, identified more accurately the grouping of respondents according to type of response. However, the study failed to identify any characteristic or group of characteristics which typified any of the new group dimensions.

In the next chapter the nature of faculty involvement in existing decision-making structures, and the relationship of this to member variables is reported. In addition, the explanations presented by instructors to explain current, preferred and actual levels of participation in decision-making are reported and discussed.

CHAPTER 7

INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES: ITS NATURE AND JUSTIFICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the Current Perceptions of and Preferences for involvement in decision-making were reported and discussed. Little reference was made to how preferences and perceptions compared to faculty's actual levels of involvement in present decision-making processes, especially as indicated by faculty memberships on committees, and by their perceived frequency of attendance at these committee meetings. Nor were the reasons for particular levels of involvement, and for perception of such levels fully discussed.

In this chapter, therefore, the following are described and analysed:

1. Faculty's actual levels of involvement in decision-making processes.

2. Faculty's frequency of attendance at committee meetings.

3. The relationship between an instructors' level of involvement and his Current Perception of and Preference

for involvement.

4. Overall perceptions of decision-making involvement as reflected by preferences related to the time spent on decision-making; type of committee involvement; and the number of committee responsibilities.

5. Reasons offered to explain Current levels of involvement.

6. Instructor perceptions of why others are involved.

INVOLVEMENT IN COMMITTEE REPRESENTATION

Table 33 indicates respondents' perception of the number of committees related to their profession, of which they are a member.

Table 33: Total Percentage Membership on Number of Committees (n = 100)

Type of Committee	Number of Committees					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
Department Committee	19	23	24	19	6	9
Faculty Committee	28	26	24	8	5	9
University Committee	55	26	9	3	4	3
Provincial, National, International Committee	34	7	11	12	20	16

Several points are reflected in this table that are relevant to the study.

1. The majority of respondents appear to be involved in at least one committee, with only 19% not being a member.

2. The likelihood of faculty having committee membership decreases with organizational distance from the Department focus.

3. Although involving less faculty than either Department or Faculty Committees, committee membership outside the Faculty on Provincial, National and International bodies commands more instructor places (225) than either Department (197) or Faculty (163) Committees.

Thus, the majority of faculty appear to be involved to varying extents in Department and Faculty decision-making processes. In addition 66% are involved in at least one discipline-oriented activity (i.e. an activity at a Provincial, National or International level related to a specific discipline interest) as well.

This pattern of overall involvement is modified somewhat when the influence of member variables is noted. Table 34 illustrates that as a result of these influences:

1. Educational Foundations is the only Department in which no member has no Department Committee membership. Educational Administration has one such member.

2. Educational Psychology and Educational Foundations

Table 34: Selected Group Percentage Responses: Committee Membership

(a) Percentage Responses: Department Committee

	Number of Committees					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
RANK						
Administrator (n=12)	25	8	9	8	9	41
Instructor (n=88)	18	25	26	20	6	5
SEX						
Male (n=87)	18	25	23	21	6	7
Female (n=13)	23	8	30	8	8	23
STATUS						
Professor (n=37)	22	13	24	19	3	19
Associate Professor (n=50)	18	32	22	18	6	4
Assistant Professor (n=13)	15	15	31	24	16	0
DEPARTMENT						
Elementary (n=21)	19	19	23	19	10	10
Secondary (n=22)	27	32	18	5	5	13
Foundations (n=13)	0	8	31	46	0	15
Administration (n=16)	6	38	38	12	6	0
Psychology (n=22)	23	18	18	22	9	5
Industrial & Vocational (n=6)	50	17	17	0	0	16

(b) Percentage Responses: Faculty Committee

	Number of Committees					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
RANK						
Administrator (n=12)	0	0	8	25	8	59
Instructor (n=88)	32	29	26	6	5	2
SEX						
Male (n=87)	28	26	25	7	5	9
Female (n=13)	31	23	15	15	8	8
STATUS						
Professor (n=37)	22	24	22	10	3	19
Associate Professor (n=50)	26	26	28	8	8	4
Assistant Professor (n=13)	54	31	15	0	0	0

Table 34: (Continued)
(c) Percentage Responses: University Committee

	Number of Committees					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
RANK						
Administrator (n=12)	33	17	17	0	8	25
Instructor (n=88)	57	29	8	3	3	0
SEX						
Male (n=87)	57	26	9	2	2	4
Female (n=13)	31	31	15	8	15	0
STATUS						
Professor (n=37)	32	32	14	6	8	8
Associate Professor (n=50)	66	24	8	2	0	0
Assistant Professor (n=13)	69	23	0	0	8	0

(d) Percentage Responses: Provincial, National and International Committees

	Number of Committees					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
RANK						
Administrator (n=12)	12	8	0	17	17	41
Instructor (n=88)	36	7	13	11	20	13
SEX						
Male (n=87)	37	6	11	10	21	15
Female (n=13)	23	15	9	23	15	15
STATUS						
Professor (n=37)	24	3	8	8	33	24
Associate Professor (n=50)	38	10	12	12	14	14
Assistant Professor (n=13)	46	8	15	23	8	0
DEPARTMENT						
Elementary (n=21)	19	5	5	24	28	19
Secondary (n=22)	29	9	14	4	31	13
Foundations (n=13)	54	0	0	8	15	23
Administration (n=16)	19	12	32	12	19	6
Psychology (n=22)	55	9	9	9	5	13
Industrial & Vocational (n=6)	33	0	0	16	17	33

have a majority of members with no membership on Provincial, National or International Committees.

3. A larger percentage of Professors than Associate Professors and Assistant Professors perceived themselves as involved in no Department Committees. In Faculty, University and Provincial Committees, however, percentage scores indicating no committee involvement were consistently lower for Professors than Associate Professors, who in turn scored lower than Assistant Professors.

4. A larger percentage of Instructors than Administrators perceived themselves as not involved in Faculty and University Committees. The reverse was true for Department Committees. However, the Administrators with such a perception were in each case division co-ordinators. If these were excluded from the totals, then clearly and not unexpectedly, Administrators were more involved in all committees.

5. Larger percentages of Females than Males claimed not to be involved in Department and Faculty Committees. The reverse was the case for University and Provincial Committees.

Despite these differences it is evident that faculty expectations for involvement in decision-making as described in Chapters 5 and 6 are supported in the majority of instances by members being involved in at least some of the decision processes afforded through formal committee work.

It is very difficult to judge the quality of such involvement. One indicator may be regularity of attendance at committees, which does not measure performance, but is an indicator of interest and concern.

Three major points emerge from Table 35 which illustrates the reported overall attendance pattern at meetings by faculty members.

Table 35: Overall Attendance at Staff and Committee Meetings (n = 100)

Type of Meeting	Estimated Percentage Attendance				
	<20	21-40	41-60	61-80	81-100
Faculty of Education Council	17	7	11	14	51
Faculty Committee	29	0	4	4	63
Department Staff Meeting	10	2	3	5	80
Department Committee	19	3	1	4	73
University Committee	49	2	3	6	40

1. Attendance at Faculty of Education Council meetings is more sporadic than for other meetings. These irregularities can be partially explained in terms of the influence of timetable and other commitments on possibility of attendance and partly by the belief noted before, and held by a number of interviewees in both this study and that of the Long Range Planning Committee (1973:8) that the Faculty of Education Council was not serving its purpose as a forum for discussion.

> Some people were really voicing their feelings, their discontent, if you would like to put it most strongly, with the Faculty of Education Council as a vehicle for expressing opinions, for exchanging ideas, for communicating with one's colleagues.

2. For each of the other types of meeting, levels of attendance generally appear to be of two types. There are those who attend less than 20% of the time and there are those who attend more than 80% of the time. Relatively few fit into other categories. Those who attend more than 80% of the time far out-number the others, with the exception of attendance at University Committee meetings.

3. There appears to be a hierarchy of performance in attendance with the Department Staff meeting most regularly attended by a majority of staff, followed by the Department Committee, the Faculty Committee, Faculty of Education Council and the University Committee. Of all the structures the Department Staff meeting is viewed most favorably regarding participation, and, most probably, regarding outcomes of involvement. This, together with the fact that Department Committees rate second in participation, further supports the claim made in Chapter 6 that faculty tend to view the Department boundaries as the limit of their major decision responsibility.

Thus, while there are differences in attendance patterns according to the specific type of meeting, overall patterns lend further support to the idea that faculty in the majority of cases are acting in manner consistent with their stated preference for joint involvement in decision-making. That is, respondents generally claim to prefer JOINT ACTION involvement in decision-making. Given the opportunity to become involved, the majority react by being regular participants in committee activities. This is, of course, subject to the exceptions noted above.

The pattern of attendance is modified by some of the group member variables. These are illustrated in Table 36.

1. Assistant Professors on a percentage basis are far more regular attenders at Department Staff and Department Committee meetings than are Professors and to a lesser extent Associate Professors.

2. Administrators are far more regular attenders at Faculty of Education Council and Faculty Committee meetings than are Instructors. Such an occurrence is not unexpected and is probably related to the differing functions of the Administrator compared to the Instructor.

3. Relative to all other Departments, Educational Psychology has far less regular attendance at all meetings except University Committees. This pattern is illustrated in Table 36 by the example of Department Staff meeting attendance.

Despite these group differences, patterns of response remain similar to the overall response with sporadic attendance at Faculty of Education Council; and "all-or-nothing" attendance at the others.

Thus, the majority of faculty members are involved in at least one of the formally established committee decision

Table 36: Selected Percentage Responses: Attendance at Meetings

(a) Department Percentage Responses: Attendance at Department Staff Meeting

	Estimated Rate of Attendance				
	20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Elementary Education (n = 21)	14	0	0	0	86
Secondary Education (n = 22)	9	0	5	9	77
Educational Foundations (n = 13)	0	0	0	8	92
Educational Administration (n = 16)	19	0	0	0	91
Educational Psychology (n = 22)	9	9	4	10	68
Industrial & Vocational Education (n = 6)	0	0	17	0	83

(b) Status Group Percentage Responses: Attendance at Department Staff Meeting

	Estimated Rate of Attendance				
	20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Professor (n = 37)	16	3	8	3	70
Associate Professor (n = 50)	6	2	0	8	84
Assistant Professor (n = 13)	7	0	0	0	93

(c) Status Group Percentage Response: Attendance at Department Committee Meetings

	Estimated Rate of Attendance				
	20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Professor (n = 37)	27	0	3	0	70
Associate Professor (n = 50)	16	6	0	8	70
Assistant Professor (n = 13)	7	0	0	0	93

(d) Rank Percentage Responses: Attendance at Faculty of Education Council

	Estimated Rate of Attendance				
	20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Administrator (n = 12)	0	0	0	16	84
Instructor (n = 88)	19	8	13	14	46

(e) Rank Percentage Responses: Attendance at Faculty Committee Meetings

	Estimated Rate of Attendance				
	20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Administrator (n = 12)	0	0	0	0	100
Instructor (n = 88)	33	0	4	5	58

structures as well as the Faculty of Education Council and the Department Staff Assembly, and in the majority of cases claim to attend on a regular basis.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRESENT LEVELS AND TYPES OF INVOLVEMENT IN ACTUAL DECISION PROCESSES

As a final indicator of how respondents would improve their present levels of involvement, they were required to make judgements about the number of committees in which they are involved at present, the time spent in committees, and the type of committee membership preferred.

Number of Committees

Table 37 indicates the total percentage responses to the statement: "The number of committees on which I would like to be a member is:"

Table 37: Preferred Involvement - Number of Committees (n = 100)

Type of Involvement	Percentage Response
Fewer than at present	30
The same as at present	58
More than at present	12

This pattern of a majority supporting their present numerical involvement, with lesser but nevertheless sizable numbers wanting fewer and a small number wanting more involvement than at present is confirmed by generally similar patterns of responses by the various membership groups. These responses, which are illustrated in Table 38(a) clarify some aspects of the overall pattern.

1. Professors contribute more heavily to responses which call for involvement in fewer committees than do the other statuses. Males contribute more heavily than do Females as a percentage of the total number of responses. Members of the Department of Educational Psychology contribute more heavily percentage-wise than do the other Departments.

2. Associate Professors and Assistant Professors contribute more heavily to responses desiring more involvement than do Professors. Females as a percentage contribute more than Males.

3. Members of the Department of Educational Administration are more likely to prefer the same numerical involvement, and less likely to desire less or more than are the members of other Departments.

4. Administrators are more likely to want involvement in fewer committees than Instructors. Instructors, however, are more likely to want the same level of involvement, and in 13% of cases want to be involved in more committees.

Table 38 (a): Total Percentage Responses for Preferred Involvement: Number of Committees

	Fewer	Same	More
RANK			
Administrator (n = 12)	58.33	41.67	
Instructor (n = 88)	26.14	60.22	13.64
SEX			
Male (n = 87)	30.33	58.14	11.63
Female (n = 13)	28.57	57.14	14.29
STATUS			
Professor (n = 37)	40.54	56.75	2.71
Associate Professor (n = 50)	22.00	62.00	16.00
Assistant Professor (n = 13)	30.76	46.16	23.08
DEPARTMENT			
Elementary Education (n = 21)	28.57	57.14	14.29
Secondary Education (n = 22)	27.28	59.09	13.63
Educational Foundations (n = 13)	23.08	69.23	7.69
Educational Administration (n = 16)	18.75	75.00	6.25
Educational Psychology (n = 22)	45.46	40.90	13.64
Industrial & Vocational Education (n = 6)	33.33	50.00	16.17

Table 38 (b): Total Percentage Responses for Preferred Involvement: Time in Committees

	Less	Same	More
RANK			
Administrator (n = 12)	66.67	33.33	
Instructor (n = 88)	44.32	44.32	11.36
SEX			
Male (n = 87)	46.52	44.18	9.30
Female (n = 13)	50.00	35.71	14.29
STATUS			
Professor (n = 37)	62.16	37.84	
Associate Professor (n = 50)	34.00	52.00	14.00
Assistant Professor (n = 13)	52.84	23.08	23.08
DEPARTMENT			
Elementary Education (n = 21)	42.86	42.86	14.28
Secondary Education (n = 22)	27.27	63.64	9.09
Educational Foundations (n = 13)	61.54	38.46	
Educational Administration (n = 16)	37.50	56.25	6.25
Educational Psychology (n = 22)	63.64	22.72	13.64
Industrial & Vocational Education (n = 6)	66.66	16.67	16.67

Table 38 (c): Total Percentage Responses for Preferred Involvement: Type of Committee

	Same	Different
RANK		
Administrator (n = 12)	83.33	16.67
Instructor (n = 88)	53.41	46.59
SEX		
Male (n = 87)	59.30	40.70
Female (n = 13)	42.86	57.14
STATUS		
Professor (n = 37)	64.86	35.14
Associate Professor (n = 50)	56.00	44.00
Assistant Professor (n = 13)	38.46	61.54
DEPARTMENT		
Elementary Education (n = 21)	57.14	42.86
Secondary Education (n = 22)	63.63	36.37
Educational Foundations (n = 13)	61.54	38.46
Educational Administration (n = 16)	68.75	31.25
Educational Psychology (n = 22)	50.00	50.00
Industrial & Vocational Education (n = 6)	66.67	33.33

Time Spent in Committee

Table 39 indicates a slightly different pattern in relation to the time respondents wish to spend in committee meetings, with more desiring less time to be spent, than the same or more time.

Table 39: Preferred Involvement - Time at Committees (n = 100)

Type of Involvement	Percentage Response
Less than at present	47
The same as at present	43
More than at present	10

This pattern is clarified by some of the group responses, which are identified in Table 38(b).

1. Professors as a percentage of their total contribute more heavily to responses desiring less time involvement, than either Associate Professors or Assistant Professors.

2. As a percentage of their total numbers Females contribute more heavily than Males in wanting less time involvement.

3. Respondents from the Departments of Elementary Education, Secondary Education and Educational Administration contribute far less heavily to responses desiring less time than do the other Departments.

4. Only the Department of Educational Foundations did not contribute to responses indicating a desire for

more involvement. Females as a percentage contributed more than Males, and Assistant Professors more than Associate Professors. Professors indicated a desire for more time spent in committee meetings.

5. Two-thirds of Administrators would prefer less time involvement and none would like a greater involvement than at present. Instructors appear evenly divided between those who want less and those who want the same time involvement. However, 12% also prefer more time involvement than at present.

Thus, subject to some qualification according to group membership, there is a tendency on the part of a near majority of respondents to prefer less time involvement in committee meetings than presently occurs. Administrators, Females, Professors and members of the Departments of Educational Foundations, Educational Psychology, and Industrial and Vocational Education make greater relative contributions to the near majority, than do other groups.

Comparison of Results

Four aspects of the response to the number of, and time spent at committees when compared with other results and with Current and Preferred Perceptions recorded in PART B of the questionnaire are relevant to the study.

1. There are a substantial number who want to maintain present committee involvement, while wishing to reduce the amount of time involvement.

2. Overall results in PART B of the questionnaire indicate that in the majority of cases respondents prefer JOINT ACTION as the level of decision involvement, and in nearly all cases desire a FORMAL level of involvement. However, 47% of responses indicated a desire for less time involvement. In other words, many respondents prefer to be involved FORMALLY in the decision-making processes. They are less certain that their present time involvement is necessary to fulfil that preference, and doubt that the quality of their involvement can be equated with the length of time spent in decision-making. This concern is highlighted again, later in this chapter.

3. Respondents from the Department of Educational Psychology as a whole want both less time commitment and involvement in fewer committees.

4. Current responses in PART B indicate that the majority choose NONE in describing their Current level of involvement in decision-making. However, the majority indicated that they are involved with at least one committee as well as Department Staff meetings and Faculty of Education Council meetings. Further, for the majority, attendance at these is claimed to be regular.

One might infer from these comparisons the existence of a discrepancy between faculty perception and action that appears partly explicable in terms of perceived committee effectiveness.

Perceived Committee Effectiveness

In describing committee effectiveness one interviewee noted:

> Rationality does not enter decision-making as much as it should. It is based more on personality and emotion and this is reflected in the quality of debate.... There are two types of decisions, approval and executive. Everyone wants to be in on the executive stage. Thus, whole groups will redo what the committee was charged to do. They will debate what the committee has spent several weeks on, and as a result decisions will not be on a rational basis as much as on a prestige basis.

Similarly, concern for committee effectiveness was expressed by another interviewee who claimed:

> Participation on a broad base has been realized too much in the formal structure and not enough in the spirit of real participation. While everyone should have the opportunity to influence it, decision-making should emphasize competence rather than mechanics. Committees should be a panel of decision-makers with knowledge in the area. Once their parameters are defined they should have sole jurisdiction.

A third interviewee implied similar dissatisfaction with the competence of committees in the following observation:

> Many instructors lack a background of training in decision-making. When it comes to negotiations they are not trained for this.... In meetings they have problems framing and supporting acceptable motions...

Support for the implications within these comments came in a variety of ways from the majority of interviewees. An existing level of scepticism is evident in relation to committees for several reasons:

1. There seems no certainty among respondents that the work in committee will be reflected in the final

decision outcome, especially where final authority rests with large groups.

2. There seems no certainty among respondents in some instances at least that decisions reached are the outcomes of either rationality or expertise.

3. There is concern that committees which often work long and hard do not always have sole jurisdiction over the final decision.

4. There is concern among some that committee members do not have the training to make committees work in the most effective manner.

In view of these types of responses it is understandable that many faculty hold a preference for a reduced time involvement and do not always equate involvement in decision-making with committee membership.

Types of Involvement

Table 40 indicates that although a majority of respondents are satisfied with the type of committees in which they are presently involved, a substantial percentage would prefer to be involved in committees different in type to those of which they are presently members.

Three modifications of this pattern are apparent as a result of the influence of group member variables (see Table 38 c).

Table 40: Preferred Type of Committee Involvement (n = 100)

Type of Involvement	Percentage
The same	57
Different	43

1. A majority of Females would prefer involvement in different committees.

2. A majority of Assistant Professors would prefer to be involved in different committees.

3. Administrators overwhelmingly wish to maintain the same committee membership, with 84% indicating this preference. However, more than half the Instructors (54%) indicate a desire for involvement in different types of committees.

Regardless of the impact of these modifications, which numerically are not very large, a significant number indicate dissatisfaction with the type of committees they are involved in. To an extent this assists in explaining why substantial numbers would prefer to spend less time in committee work.

However, allied to the fact that a majority of respondents wish to retain the same number of committee involvements, this also implies that faculty members feel a commitment to involvement in such structures, even where personal preferences are not satisfied.

REASONS EXPLAINING CURRENT LEVELS OF INVOLVEMENT

In an attempt to identify the motivational basis for faculty involvement or lack of it in decision-making processes, all questionnaire respondents were required to choose any or all of fifteen statements which best described the reasons for their involvement level. Twenty-eight interviewees were also asked to respond to two questions relevant to this section:

1. What motives move faculty members to participate in decision-making?

2. What do you see as the major impediments to faculty member decisional participation?

Questionnaire Responses

Table 41 illustrates that the major reasons influencing individual faculty members to be involved in decision-making processes fall into two main categories.

1. Factors affecting faculty negatively centre mainly on the time consuming nature of involvement, especially as related to taking too much time from teaching and teaching preparation. Almost half the respondents also believed too much time was consumed on unimportant matters. This seems to support the sceptical view noted earlier in the chapter that many respondents hold regarding the effectiveness of committees. It also helps to explain

Table 41: Total Percentage Responses: Justification of Decision Involvement (n = 100)

	Reason	Percentage Response*
1	Take too much time from research	17
2	Waste too much time on inconsequential matters	47
3	Take too much time from teaching and teaching preparation	64
4	Essential to smooth functioning of Faculty and Department	73
5	My personal duty	62
6	Necessary to protect interests	24
7	Brings influence	33
8	Factor in promotion and salary increment	25
9	Personal enjoyment	17
10	Expected of faculty	47
11	Avenue to improving research	8
12	Avenue to improving teaching	19
13	Legitimizes decisions already taken	11
14	Ideas and opinions not valued	5
15	Other	12

* A 100% response is possible for each statement.

the apparent discrepancy noted earlier, between instructors' preferences for JOINT ACTION involvement and their desires for less time involvement.

2. Factors affecting faculty positively centre mainly on two factors. A large majority regard involvement as essential to effective Faculty and Department functioning. They appear motivated to assist this functioning mainly through a sense of personal duty and because it is expected of faculty.

A third important aspect of the response pattern is the relatively low numbers of responses indicating a belief that meetings are important avenues for improving research and teaching. They were more likely to be seen as places where influence could be wielded, interests need to be protected, and judgements could be made regarding promotion. This expectation, that committee attendance is a duty and expected, allied with the attitude that attendance does little to improve the major elements of their profession, probably explains further why many faculty wish to maintain the same number of committees, but prefer to spend less time in committee meetings.

Some modifications to the response pattern result from the various group member influences. These are illustrated in Table 42.

1. Assistant Professors appear far more cynical of the value of committees and meetings than either

Table 42: Group Percentage Responses: Justification of Decision Involvement

Question Number:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15*
RANK															
Administrator (n=12)	8	25	0	12	75	8	25	25	33	42	8	33	0	0	8 **
Instructor (n=88)	18	20	36	70	60	26	34	25	15	49	8	17	13	6	13
SEX															
Male (n=87)	16	45	31	14	62	24	33	22	16	44	7	18	11	4	11
Female (n=13)	7	61	38	69	61	23	31	46	23	69	15	23	8	8	15
STATUS															
Professor (n=37)	19	56	30	76	54	13	27	8	19	38	13	16	19	5	13
Associate Professor (n=50)	10	32	26	78	68	24	36	32	18	52	4	24	14	4	8
Assistant Professor (n=13)	38	77	61	46	61	54	38	46	7	62	7	7	31	7	31
DEPARTMENT															
Elementary (n=21)	10	48	24	86	67	14	33	33	28	52	9	33	0	0	0
Secondary (n=22)	14	50	27	68	59	27	45	18	18	36	4	14	4	4	9
Foundations (n=13)	15	54	38	69	62	23	23	15	7	54	7	15	30	15	8
Administration (n=16)	12	25	12	93	75	19	37	31	37	44	12	19	6	6	19
Psychology (n=22)	36	55	45	54	63	22	18	27	0	50	4	13	18	4	27
Industrial & Vocational (n=6)	0	50	68	50	16	66	50	16	0	67	16	17	16	0	16

* The exact content of each statement is identified in Table 41.
** A 100% response is possible for each statement.

Associate Professors or Professors. As a percentage of their total responding population they contribute far more heavily than Professors or Associate Professors to responses indicating that meetings waste too much time on trivia, and take too much time from teaching and research, that involvement is necessary to protect interests, is a factor in promotion, and is only encouraged to give support to decisions already taken by administrators and other influentials. Similarly they are less likely to acknowledge the essentiality of meetings and committees to the functioning of the Department or Faculty.

2. Instructors are more likely to view meetings as time wasting than are Administrators.

3. Although percentage scores are relatively high for all Departments, members of both Elementary Education and Educational Administration are more likely than members of the other Departments to perceive attendance at meetings as essential to smooth functioning of the Faculty and Department.

Interview Response

Although individuals gave reasons such as duty, and response to expectations to justify their involvement in decision-making processes, interviewees were not reluctant to identify a range of other motives when asked to assess reasons underlying the involvement of faculty generally.

Analysis of the interview responses illustrates that nine broad classifications of motives were identified as contributing to positive attitudes toward being involved in decision processes.

These included the following:

Professional Concern: This refers to concern about the success and quality of Department and Faculty activities.

Self Interest: This refers to the need perceived by instructors to become involved in decision-making to protect personal stakes in various programs, in tenure, in promotion, etc.

Belief in own Contribution: This refers to the positive attitude held by instructors that they have the ability to, and should make worthwhile contributions to decision-making.

Power and Prestige: This refers to a desire to be involved in decision processes because involvement is seen as prestigous, and because it gives control over the direction of decision-making.

Personal Interest: This refers to the perception that involvement in decision-making is an inherently interesting activity in its own right.

Sense of Responsibility: This refers to the belief that participation is the duty of all faculty.

Need for Visibility: This refers to the belief that participation is a means of drawing attention to the role one is playing in an institution.

Feedback of Information: This refers to the role a committee or staff meeting plays as a source of information about various Faculty and Department activities.

Dissonance Created by Previous Decisions: This refers to involvement activity stimulated by disagreement with decisions taken at earlier meetings.

As shown in Table 43 a majority of interviewees identified two of these as important motives. These were Professional Concern and Self Interest. Two were identified by almost a majority. These were a Belief in one's own Contribution and Power and Prestige.

Table 43: Motives to Participate - Interviewees' Responses (n = 28)

Motive	Percentage Identifying Motives *
Professional Concern	60
Self Interest	60
Belief in one's own Contribution	44
Power and Prestige	40
Personal Interest	32
Sense of Responsibility	20
Need for Visibility	20
Feedback of Information	8
Dissonance Created by Previous Decisions	8

* A 100% response is possible for each motive.

Three features of this response pattern are important.

1. The category, Professional Concern, roughly equates with the motive "Essential to smooth functioning of Faculty and Department". The results reported lend clear support to each other.

2. The categories, Self Interest, Belief in one's own Contribution, and Power and Prestige, refer to instructor-oriented motives, i.e., concern with the self as compared, for example, to concern with other instructors, a feeling of responsibility, a sense of duty.

3. Only 24% of questionnaire respondents chose "Necessary to protect interests" to explain their present level of involvement. Sixty percent of interviewees chose Self Interest in describing the motives of instructors. In other words faculty members seemed more willing to assume political motives on the part of others than when adjudging their own motives.

Interviewees also identified sixteen factors regarded as impediments to effective involvement in decision-making. Included among the impediments were the following:

Time: This was regarded as important in two ways. The amount of time available for some decisions limited the extent to which instructors could be involved. Instructors were also limited in the amount of time they could give to participation.

Lack of Skill/Training in Decision-Making: This refers to the inability of faculty to use the decision-making structure efficiently and effectively. Two examples of interviewees comments illustrate the limitation.

> People are not very skilled in decision-making - in what to say, in how to say it, and when to say it to effectively influence the meeting.
>
> Instructors' lack of background in training in decision-making is a most important impediment. When it comes to negotiations they are not trained in this.

It was claimed by interviewees that this led to disillusionment about the structure and withdrawal from decision processes.

No Interest in Decision-Making: This refers to a lack of interest by instructors in involvement in decision-making as a process in its own right.

Lack of Information: This refers to another impediment leading to dissatisfaction with decision processes and possible withdrawal from them. Concern was expressed that decisions sometimes had to be made without the requisite information, and that committee decisions were sometimes overturned by large groups acting without the information held by the committee. It is an impediment to effective participation rather than to participation *per se*.

Structure: This refers to the nature of the organizational structure and of the formal processes of decision-making. One interviewee who was most concerned with this aspect made the following comment:

> A major limitation discouraging effective involvement is the general lethargy of the bureaucratic system.

> It takes a long time to have things implemented. A long lead time is needed for decisions. The structures bog the process down.

Institutional Size: With one hundred and fifty faculty it was seen as almost impossible to involve everybody effectively in decision-making. The size of the institution, it was claimed, inhibited truly participative decision-making.

Money or rather lack of it, was seen as an impediment because of its influence on the availability of information, e.g., through extensive use of the computer and research assistants.

Personality has several aspects. It was noted in Chapter 4 that the personality of the Department Chairman may influence the type of decision-making process. Similarly the personality of the instructor was seen by interviewees as influencing his receptiveness to participatory forms of decision-making.

No Evidence of Results: This refers to a perception on the part of instructors regarding the results of their involvement. Where no evidence is apparent disillusionment with, and withdrawal from participation is claimed to occur.

Tradition: This refers to the influence of past styles of leadership and of past roles assigned to hierarchical positions upon present decision processes. Traditional structures and expectations are perceived as impeding participatory decision-making.

Political Behavior: This refers to the activity of interest groups, and to the use of position, prestige, and influence to achieve specific types of decisions.

Lack of Status: Status of faculty members was perceived as a very important influence in decision-making. Similarly those who lacked status in the eyes of their colleagues faced difficulty in convincing colleagues of the worth of their contribution.

Present Voting System: This impediment related particularly to the method of voting people onto committees. The main criterion for voting was perceived to be the familiarity of names. This impeded the election of many.

Faculty Atmosphere: This refers to a belief that the Faculty did not really encourage participation.

Expedient Behavior: This is related to Time and refers to the decisions of administrators not to call meetings in apparent attempts to avoid time wasting or to meet tight schedules.

Nature of Formal Leadership: This is related to Personality and refers to the expectations for decision-making processes conveyed by the Dean or Department Chairmen.

Table 44 illustrates that only one of the factors was identified by a majority of respondents and two by more than 40% of interviewees. Time was seen as a major impediment by 76%, thus supporting the identification of negative motives as reported by the questionnaire respondents. Lack of Skill and/or Training in Decision-Making was identified by 44% of interviewees, thus supporting the belief noted earlier that many faculty members are not adequately skilled in decision-making to maximize the benefits of involvement in decision-making.

Table 44: Impediments to Participation - Interviewees' Responses (n = 28)

Impediments	Percentage Identifying Impediments *
Time	76
Lack of skill/training in decision-making	44
No interest in decision-making	28
Lack of information	24
Structure	24
Institutional size	24
Money	16
Personality	16
No evidence of results	12
Tradition	12
Political behavior	12
Lack of status	8
Present voting system	8
Faculty atmosphere	8
Expedient behavior	8
Nature of formal leadership	8

* A 100% response is possible for each Impediment

CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM RESULTS

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results reported in Chapter 7.

1. The majority of faculty recognize that opportunities

for involvement in decision-making structures exist, especially through participation in the Faculty of Education Council and in the various Faculty and Department committees. However, subject to the influence of certain group variables which are discussed in Chapter 6, a majority of respondents currently perceived themselves as actually involved only at an INFORMAL level. Responses to interviews and to PART D of the questionnaire suggest that this perception results from scepticism about the effectiveness of committee operations and about whether final decisions reflect actual committee effort. Further, a series of impediments to participation exist which make it extremely difficult for faculty to be involved or to participate effectively, or to perceive the evidence of their involvement in the final outcome. Most often identified among these are Time and Lack of Skill in Decision-making.

These influences have at least two effects:

(i) Faculty have developed a preference for less time allocation to committees, and, for 30%, less numerical involvement in committees.

(ii) Current Perceptions of INFORMAL involvement by faculty are very different from the opportunities for involvement which they acknowledge to exist.

2. The majority of faculty, subject to the influence of the group member variables noted in Chapter 6, prefer JOINT ACTION involvement in decision-making. Attendance

patterns suggest that faculty in the majority of cases are acting in a manner consistent with their stated preference, and are involved in at least one of the formally established committee decision structures as well as the Faculty of Education Council and the Department Staff meeting. In the majority of cases they claim to attend on a regular basis as well. In describing reasons for such desires faculty refer to "Duty" and "Essentiality to Department and Faculty Functioning". In describing the motives of others, they refer most often to "Professional Concern" and "Self Interest". Only rarely do faculty see meetings as essential to their teaching and research functions.

Thus, points (1) and (2) suggest that faculty want to be involved for professional, personal and duty-oriented reasons, and act accordingly when given this opportunity. However, they presently perceive involvement opportunities as not allowing for effective involvement, and consequently describe their present levels of involvement as INFORMAL.

Several other relationships regarding group member variables are highlighted by this data.

3. There appears to be a hierarchy of involvement as far as employment status is concerned, with Professors more likely to be involved in committees than are Associate Professors, who, in turn, are more likely to be involved than Assistant Professors. This hierarchy of involvement does not reflect the desires of the different

groups, however.

(i) Professors want less committee involvements than the other groups.

(ii) Where more committee involvements are desired it is by Assistant and Associate Professors.

(iii) Professors are more likely to desire less time involvement than are Associate Professors or Assistant Professors.

(iv) Assistant Professors are more likely to desire more time involvement than are Associate Professors or Professors.

(v) A substantial minority of Assistant Professors preferred a different type of committee involvement.

Thus, those with the highest levels of involvement tend to want less. Those with lower levels tend to want more, and to some extent a different type.

These differences also help to explain why Associate Professors and Assistant Professors make higher percentage responses than Professors indicating conditions of decisional deprivation, and why Professors make higher percentage scores indicating conditions of decisional saturation.

4. A similar hierarchy of involvement exists for Administrators and Instructors. With the exception of Department Committees, Administrators are more involved in committees, and are more regular attenders, especially at Faculty of Education Council and at Faculty Committees.

That this hierarchy should continue to exist is by no means certain at least in the eyes of the respondents.

(i) Administrators are more likely to want less involvement in committees than are Instructors.

(ii) A small percentage of Instructors desire greater involvement than they presently have.

(iii) Administrators are more likely to desire less time involvement than Instructors, who are evenly divided on the issue.

(iv) A small percentage of Instructors want a greater time involvement.

(v) Instructors are more likely than Administrators to prefer a different type of involvement.

Thus there is a trend for Administrators to be more involved than Instructors and want less involvement. Instructors are more likely to be involved less, to want the same or more involvement, and to want a different type of involvement.

5. Some of the reported responses when differentiated according to the respondent's sex, lend support to at least one finding reported in earlier chapters.

(i) Females are more likely to want more time involvement in committees than are Males.

(ii) Females are more likely to prefer a different type of committee involvement to the present than are Males.

These two results help to explain the findings reported in Chapter 6 that Females prefer a higher level of decision-making involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization than do Males. By more involvement in this decision area, some change in the nature of their involvement may be possible.

One further comment remains. Respondent's desires about time spent in, number of, and type of committee involvement at times appear to conflict with general Preferences for JOINT ACTION involvement. However, it must be remembered that Preferences refer to some future preferred condition. Desires as measured by time spent in, number of, and type of committee involvements refer to attitudes toward the situation currently perceived to exist.

SUMMARY

In this chapter faculty members' actual levels of involvement in decision-making; the relationship between these and Preferred and Currently Perceived levels of involvement; faculty preferences regarding time spent on committees, type of committee involvement and the number of committee responsibilities; reasons offered to explain Current levels of involvement; and perception of why others are involved were discussed.

In the next chapter the results reported in

Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 will be synthesized in an attempt to provide solutions to the study problems identified in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 8

A SYNTHESIS OF THE RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1 the problem investigated in this basically descriptive study was stated in the following general way:

> What are the Current Perceptions of and Preferences for participation in decision-making of administrators and instructors in the Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta? What is the extent of participation in decision-making? How are these perceptions and the extent of participation related to a number of member variables?

To provide answers to the stated problem, information was sought by asking thirteen questions grouped in three broad categories. This chapter reports on the results of the investigation in terms of these categories and the attendant questions.

GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF AND EXPECTATIONS FOR PARTICIPATION

What is the nature of the existing Faculty decision-making structure as perceived by the investigator?

The formal decision-making structure has a variety of important features. Several decision-making bodies are located at different levels of the organization: e.g., the Faculty of Education Council at the Faculty level; Graduate and Undergraduate Committees at the Department level; Division Staff meetings at the Division level, etc. Membership varies according to the level and purpose of the body and the type of decision being made. For example, all faculty are members of the Faculty of Education Council where policy decisions are made. In contrast, where policies are implemented membership may be as a nominee on a committee, or as a single administrator. Decisions are not always the responsibility of one particular decision body, often being referred to other bodies for discussion and ratification. The procedures for making such decisions vary with different decision-making bodies.

The formal decision-making structure is based on the concept of faculty involvement. In matters closely related to the professional domain of teaching and research the involvement is as direct as possible. Where outcomes of the decision are uncertain and related to policy decisions they are subject to vote or consensus by total faculty. Where the outcome is uncertain and concerned with the administration of personnel they are subject to vote or consensus by an elected committee (e.g., decisions about the promotion of individual faculty). Where the outcome is certain and concerned with policy implementation they are subject to vote (e.g., policy decisions by Faculty of Education Council), consensus (e.g., decisions in some Department staff meetings), or unilateral decision by a representative committee or single administrator (e.g., decisions about travel funds). Where the outcome is certain and concerned with administrative detail they are subject to unilateral decision by a single administrator (e.g., decisions about office functions).

Thus, in his professional area of teaching and research the faculty member can expect to be responsible for his own decisions. In the area of policy decisions he votes as a member of a group. In other decision bodies a person, either nominated or elected represents him, and in administrative detail an administrator acts for him. The committee member has representative status acting independently and not necessarily reflecting his group's wishes, as compared to delegate status where his actions are directed solely by the wishes of the group. The administrator is responsible to faculty in that they have the opportunity to play an active role in his selection.

At least four features are evident in the Faculty, however, which make unwise any assurance that the identified structure actually represents the process by which decisions are reached.

Although instructor participation in decision-making is encouraged in the Faculty, participation beyond the

Faculty of Education Council and the Department does not allow for all to participate equally. There are a number of people other than Department Chairmen who are more heavily involved than others, and who have greater access to information by virtue of their prestige and rank. Many decisions, e.g., finance and requirements for teacher certification, are influenced by external agencies to the extent that they often pre-determine the nature of a series of consequential decisions within the Faculty or Department. Note, for example, the influence restrictions in finance have had on employment of new staff, development of new courses, allocation of teaching hours, etc. Note also, for example, the influence requirements for an extended practicum may have on the development of Teacher Education programs. Finally, even where decisions are made within the formal structure the length of the decision process and the diffuse nature of decision-making mean that interim or facilitative decisions often have to be taken which modify the final decision outcome.

Thus, formal decision-making structures in the Faculty have been developed to allow instructor participation in decision-making directly or by representation. However, there are a variety of factors which may inhibit those who appear to be involved by the structure, actually perceiving their involvement especially as illustrated in the nature of final decision outcomes.

To what extent do similarities exist between faculty members' perceptions of Current involvement in decision-making and the possibilities existing for involvement?

Although, the formal decision structure has been established to encourage instructor input in decision-making, instructors still chose INFORMAL categories most often when describing their current perceived level of involvement. At first this appears condemnatory of the total decision structure. However, interviewees indicated an appreciation of the avowed purpose of the present structure and were in general agreement with its aims. Where uncertainty existed it was in perceiving the operation of these structures as effective in their purpose of bringing about involvement. Scepticism of committee involvement as a way of involving instructors in decision-making was expressed by many. They were uncertain that work in committee was reflected in final decision outcomes, especially where final authority rested with large groups. They often felt that decision outcomes were based on neither rationality nor expertise. They believed that many committee members were unskilled in making committees work effectively, and they were concerned that sole jurisdiction over final decisions rarely rested with committees. Many were unsure that representatives on committees really represented instructor belief. Finally, among many there was a belief that the process of nomination for election to committees militated against involvement of the lesser known, less prestigious, lower ranked faculty members.

It seemed to the researcher, therefore, that while structures for involvement existed and while faculty members were involved in these structures, if final outcomes did not reflect their input into the decision process, they were unlikely to judge that involvement as meaningful. As illustrated above, there are several reasons why the decision outcome might not reflect that input.

To what extent do similarities exist between faculty desires for participation and their perceptions of the current extent of participation?

The results of the study indicate that generally speaking there are three clearly definable groups within the Faculty, regarding Current Perceptions of and Preferences for involvement in decision-making. There are those who perceived themselves as FORMALLY involved in decision-making with the administration and wished to maintain that status. There are those who perceived themselves as only INFORMALLY involved and wished to increase their level of involvement. Thirty-nine percent of responses indicating conditions of decisional deprivation typify this group. Finally, there are those who perceived themselves as not involved, and who wished to maintain that status. This is only a small group. The majority of respondents did not wish to have total control over Faculty decision-making. However, they did wish to have some formality in procedures and expected their opinions to be formally recognized in decision outcomes.

Academic Operations was the decision area most closely identified by respondents as their own bailiwick. Together with *Intra-Faculty Organization* this was the area attracting most responses indicating a condition of decisional equilibrium.

The decision area of *Financial Planning and Policy* attracted a majority of responses indicating a condition of decisional deprivation. Despite the feeling of deprivation however, faculty only desired to be involved at the level of CONSULTATION.

Thus, for a large number, Preferences and Current Perceptions were very similar. However, 40% of responses differed in Current Perceptions of involvement as compared to Preferred levels of involvement. Such differences were most likely to occur in the decision area of *Financial Planning and Policy* and least likely to occur in *Academic Operations*. Faculty members rarely desired total control over their involvement, however.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF FACULTY MEMBER VARIABLES TO CURRENT AND PREFERRED PERCEPTIONS

To what extent do similarities exist between Instructor and Administrator perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

In describing perceived Current levels of involvement in decision-making Instructors chose INFORMAL categories more often than did Administrators (55% compared to 45%). Administrators generally perceived Instructors as being involved at an appropriate level. Seventy-six percent of their responses indicated conditions of decisional equilibrium. However, a large minority of Instructors (43%) indicated conditions of perceived decisional deprivation. In the decision areas of Faculty Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy a majority of Instructors' responses indicated decisional deprivation. The areas of Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization were those most likely to indicate a condition of decisional equilibrium on the part of the Instructor (65% in each case).

A multiple discriminant analysis illustrated that in individual decision areas, Administrators were more likely to perceive Instructors as currently formally involved in Faculty Recruitment and Financial Planning and Policy than were the Instructors themselves. Administrators scored higher in their perceptions of Preferred Instructor involvement in Intra-Faculty

Organization than did Instructors. Instructors scored higher in their Preferred level of involvement in Faculty Status.

Thus, although there are notable variations to the response pattern, Administrators perceived Instructors generally as involved at an appropriate level in most decision-making areas. Instructors, however, indicated that they are not involved at the level they would prefer. This level of preference was normally JOINT ACTION or CONSULTATION. Only rarely in individual response patterns did Instructors express a desire to have total control over decision-making.

To what extent do similarities exist among Departments within the Faculty regarding faculty members' perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation in decision-making?

With the exception of Elementary Education, respondents in all Departments chose either NONE or DISCUSSION most often when describing perceived Current levels of involvement. Members of the Department of Elementary Education chose JOINT ACTION marginally more often than NONE. All Department group respondents chose JOINT ACTION most often, in describing their Preferred involvement. Departments tended to cluster into two groups according to their responses. Members of the Department of Elementary Education and Educational Administration had similar response patterns largely indicating conditions of decisional equilibrium.

The multiple discriminant analysis suggested that the traditional preserve of the instructor, Academic Operations was not unanimously viewed in such a way, especially by faculty members of Educational Foundations, Educational Psychology, and Industrial and Vocational Education who scored lower in their Current Perceptions of involvement in this area than did the other Departments. Elementary Education faculty perceived higher levels of involvement in Faculty Recruitment and preferred higher involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization than did the others. Industrial and Vocational Education faculty perceived higher levels of involvement in Financial Planning and Policy.

To what extent do similarities exist between Male and Female faculty perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

Males were more likely to choose INFORMAL categories in describing their Current Perception of decision involvement than Females, who chose FORMAL categories marginally more often. Both chose JOINT ACTION most often as the Preferred category, although Males chose CONSULTATION almost as often. A majority of responses by Females indicated conditions of decisional equilibrium and in no decision area did a majority of responses indicate conditions of decisional deprivation. Males' responses indicated majority conditions of decisional deprivation in Financial Planning and Policy. Only in the areas of Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty

Organization did less than one third of Males' responses indicate decisional deprivation.

Females preferred high levels of decision-making involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization, apparently perceiving some disadvantage in the present structures which determine committee membership.

Thus, even though Females in 49% of cases viewed themselves as currently INFORMALLY involved, they were still less likely than Males to view themselves as less involved than they would prefer to be and more likely to view themselves as involved at an acceptable level in all decision areas.

To what extent do similarities exist between employment statuses regarding perceptions of Current and Preferred modes of participation?

Professors were more likely to perceive instructors as currently FORMALLY involved in decision-making than were Associate and Assistant Professors. In describing Preferred levels of involvement, however, all three groups made a majority of responses in FORMAL categories, although Assistant Professors were less likely to do so than the others. Associate Professors perceived a higher level of Current involvement in Intra-Faculty Organization and a lesser level of Current involvement in Faculty Recruitment and Faculty-Environment Interaction than Professors and Assistant Professors. Associate Professors also held a higher Preferred level of involvement in Faculty-Environment Interaction.

Overall decisional deprivation scores were relatively even. Associate Professors had a majority of responses indicating decisional deprivation in Financial Planning and Policy and Faculty Status; Assistant Professors in Financial Planning and Policy. Assistant Professors overall, had the highest percentage of scores indicating decisional equilibrium and decisional saturation scores were relatively more prevalent among Professors than others.

What relationship does individual faculty members' orientation to their discipline have to their Preferred modes of participation?

No strong relationship was identified as existing between an instructor's orientation to his discipline and his Preferred modes of participation. However, a positive relationship was shown to exist between the individual instructor's discipline-orientation and items relating to faculty appointments, promotions, evaluations and dismissals, and to teaching and service activities. Negative relationships were shown to exist with planning of audio-visual aids and constructing class schedules. These relationships were small in absolute terms, but relative to the other 35 correlations between Preferred Involvement items and discipline-orientation which all closely approached zero they had some substance. Further substance was given to them by the regularity of the pattern of items for which the slight relationship was indicated.

What explanations are presented by respondents to justify Current, Preferred and Actual modes of participation in decision-making?

A majority or near majority of instructors judged themselves to be motivated positively by a belief in the essentiality of participation for the smooth functioning of Faculty and Department (73% of respondents); by a sense of personal duty (62% of respondents); and because it is expected of faculty (47% of respondents). When asked to judge the motives of other instructors several other variables were introduced. Of these, four were identified by a majority or near majority: professional concern (60% of respondents); self interest (60% of respondents); a belief in ability to make a worthwhile contribution (44% of respondents); and a desire for power and prestige (40% of respondents).

Factors that discouraged participation centred on the time element involved, especially as reflected in the resulting reduction of time available for teaching, teaching preparation and research (64% of respondents). Time wasting on inconsequential matters was also identified by 64% as an inhibiting factor. In identifying impediments to participation by instructors generally, interviewees identified a wide variety of possible impediments in addition to emphasizing time as the main negative factor. Among the most often identified were the lack of skill of instructors in decision-making (44% of interviewees); lack of interest in decision-making

(28% of interviewees); lack of information relevant to decisions (24% of interviewees); organizational structure and institutional size (24% of interviewees).

THE NATURE OF FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN EXISTING DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES

What is the nature of faculty involvement in existing decision-making structures?

The majority of respondents in the study were involved in at least three decision-making processes: the Faculty of Education Council; the Department Staff meeting; and at least one committee. Perceived levels of attendance at these varied. Attendance at Faculty of Education Council meetings is more sporadic than for other meetings, probably as a result of the influence of other commitments and of the belief that the Council was not serving its function as a forum of discussion. For other types of meetings attendance appeared to be of two types, with a minority attending less than 20% of the time and a majority more than 80% of the time. The Department Staff meeting was most likely to attract regular majority attendance, followed in turn by the Department Committee, the Faculty Committee, Faculty of Education Council and University Committee.

Thus, while there were differences in attendance patterns according to the specific type of meeting they suggested that instructors act in a manner consistent with their stated preference for JOINT ACTION involvement in decision-making.

The majority supported their present numerical involvement in committees although 30% would like to be involved in fewer committees than at present. A near majority of respondents would prefer less time involvement than they have at present. There existed among respondents a suspicion about the effectiveness of the committee structure and the meaningfulness of their present individual involvement in decision-making processes. Although a majority indicated satisfaction with their present type of committee involvement, a substantial minority preferred a different type of involvement.

Are there differences between ranks in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

Generally speaking, both Instructors and Administrators appeared to participate in a manner consistent with their desires for participation. However, there were some differences between the two groups in their actual levels of participation in various committees. A larger percentage of Instructors than Administrators perceived themselves as not involved in Faculty and University Committees. As a consequence the data show them to be less regular attenders at these. Administrators perceived their present level of involvement in committees as too heavy and desired less time to be spent in meeting involvement. Instructors however, were more likely to want the same level of involvement. However, 13% wanted more involvement. Instructors were evenly divided in their attitude to time involvement with 44% preferring the same time involvement and 44% wanting less. Twelve percent preferred a greater time involvement than at present. Surprisingly, in view of preferences for the number and type of committee involvements, Administrators overwhelmingly desired the same type of involvement. A majority of Instructors, however, preferred a type of involvement different from the present, even though the majority were willing to maintain the same numerical commitment they presently had.

Are there differences between sexes in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

Both Males and Females chose JOINT ACTION most often as the Preferred category of involvement although Males chose CONSULTATION almost as often. Generally speaking, Females who chose INFORMAL categories to describe their present level of involvement were content with this involvement. Although larger percentages of Females than Males claimed not to be involved in Department and Faculty Committees, the reverse was the case for University and Provincial Committees. Females also claimed to be more involved in volunteer committees than in elected committee.

There was little difference between the patterns of perceived attendance. However, Females were more likely than Males to desire greater numerical involvement, and want less or more time involvement. More than half of the Female respondents (58%) preferred involvement in different committees compared to 41% of Males. Overall, Females were less likely than Males to indicate contentment with the status quo regarding involvement in particular decision processes. This was despite the fact that in PART B of the questionnaire a majority of responses by Females indicated a condition of decisional equilibrium. This probably reflects a concern about the quality of their involvement rather than about the actual level of involvement.

Thus, the responses of Males and Females were similar in that their levels of participation matched with their stated preferences. They were dissimilar in that Females were more likely to be less than content with the nature of their level of participation as compared to their actual level of involvement.

Are there differences between employment statuses in actual participation and in desire for participation in decision-making?

There are several differences in the patterns of response according to status. Associate Professors and Assistant Professors were less likely to be involved in no Department Committees than were Professors. However, in Faculty, University and Provincial Committees the reverse was the case. Professors perceive themselves as less regular attenders at Department Staff and Department Committee meetings than do Assistant Professors and to a lesser extent Associate Professors. They were more likely to desire involvement in fewer committees, to prefer less time involvement, and to want to maintain involvement in the same type of committee. Assistant Professors were more likely than the other statuses to want a different type of involvement, and in 24% of cases wanted to be involved in more and spend more time in committee work.

Nevertheless, although there were clear differences between statuses in their responses to various aspects of involvement in decision-making, their preferences for involvement were generally consistent with actual participation in decision-making processes.

Are the member variables of rank, status, sex, discipline-orientation and Department those most appropriate for accounting for differences of perception?

The different group memberships accounted for some differences that occur in Current Perceptions of and Preferred Involvement in decision-making. No one type of group membership explained totally the differences in response. With the demographic data available, an attempt was made to type groups that evolved from an obverse factor analysis. However, no combination of characteristics appeared to predominate in any group to the extent that

that group could be typed.

The obverse factor analysis suggested that the perceptions of and preferences for involvement in decision-making tended to be influenced more by factors other than the normal demographic factors recorded in this study. Such factors were not specifically identified. Analysis of overall results and interviews suggested that there were at least two partial determinants of perceptions and preferences.

The influence of the decision area is one of these . It can be illustrated by reference to respondents' higher expectations for involvement in decision-making relevant to their individual Department than to other Departments and the Faculty. Results suggested that there was a definite tendency to equate boundaries of decision responsibility with those of the Department.

Similarly, a preference for higher levels of involvement in Financial Planning and Policy, and to a lesser extent Faculty Status, as well as a tendency of respondents towards decisional equilibrium in Academic Operations and Intra-Faculty Organization were all indicators that preferences cut across membership group boundaries, but were tempered by the nature of the decision area involved.

Personal factors that interact with organizational factors and vice versa to influence perceptions and preferences were identified as a second determinant.

Included in these personal factors were interest in and skill in decision-making; the ability of the individual to make particular decision processes work for him; individual perception of previous successful or unsuccessful involvement in decision-making; a need for ego-involvement; existing prestige level within the Faculty; relationships with other prestigous influentials in the Department; the size of the institution; the nature of established decision-making structures; and the organizational atmosphere of the Faculty and Department.

In this chapter the results of the study are summarized in such a way that a number of conclusions could be drawn in response to the study problems identified in Chapter 1. In the final chapter, the findings of this study are discussed in terms of their implications for theory, practice and research.

CHAPTER 9

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY, PRACTICE AND RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the results reported in previous chapters and summarized in Chapter 8 are analysed in terms of the implications they have for theory, research and practice in the area of governance in higher education. Little reference has been made to this point to the following:

1. The application of results to existing decision theory.
2. The identification of implications of this study for decision-model development.
3. A comparison of the results of this study with those of other studies.
4. The needs identified for further research.
5. The implication of the results of the study for Faculty governance generally, and specifically for governance in the Faculty studied.

These are considered in the remainder of this chapter. In identifying these implications it must be noted, however, that this study analysed the decision-making processes of only one Faculty. Consequently, while statements may be made with certainty about implications for practice within that Faculty, any attempt to generalize to Faculties as a whole must be undertaken with caution. As applied to Faculty governance universally, therefore, the results of this study are analysed in the following sections only in terms of the support they offer or fail to offer to existing research findings in the area, and in terms of questions arising from the study which may lead to further theory development.

IMPLICATIONS FOR EXISTING THEORY

This study provides information which may serve to clarify several of the concepts of decision theory identified in Chapter 2, particularly as these can be applied to the organization of a Faculty of Education. Especially relevant to this study are the decision models of Thompson (1967) and Simon (1964), and the models of organization deemed applicable to the Faculty setting, viz. bureaucratic, collegial, mixed and political.

The Nature of Decision-Making

This study identified a number of factors relevant to the Thompson (1967) model which is described in the Literature Review (p. 16). The model was deemed appropriate in describing types of decision issues and strategies relevant to these decision issues. Examples of Thompson's Computational Strategies (e.g., in Policy Implementation); Majority Judgement (e.g., Policy Development); and Compromise (e.g., Administration of Personnel) were apparent in the Faculty. The study did not find an "Anomic Structure" presently existing, but saw possibilities for the emergence of one if the concern for the future of existing boundaries deepened and was not accounted for.

However, the Thompson model fails to emphasize the following features of an organization's decision-making processes, subsuming them in more general considerations about causation and outcomes.

1. The type of decision. e.g., is it related to policy making, to policy implementation, to the administration of personnel, or to administrative detail?

2. Knowledge about the outcomes of decisions. e.g., is direction given to decisions by existing policy? What is known about the impact decisions will have on the organization and its members?

3. The type of decision body that is involved in decision-making. e.g., is it a very large group like a Faculty of Education Council, a group like a Department Staff Meeting, a small committee or a single administrator? Is the decision body elected, or nominated as a representative committee?

4. Procedures used to accept and ratify decisions.

e.g., is ratification of decisions by consensus, democratic vote or by unilateral decision?

Figure 10 illustrates a model of Faculty decision-making structures which emphasizes the factors noted above. In addition, decision strategies, as defined by Thompson, are included. The model emphasizes the concept of the decision structures and processes of the Faculty of Education as a series of interrelating factors, each affecting the nature and composition of the other. It is based on the concept of decision outcomes being predictable with varying levels of certainty. As indicated in Chapter 4, certainty is determined by:

1. The direction given to decisions by existing policy.

2. Knowledge about the impact of decisions.

The level of certainty is related to the type of decision. The study conducted, and especially the results of interviews, document research and observation reported in Chapter 4, suggests that there are four contributing factors to certainty of outcome.

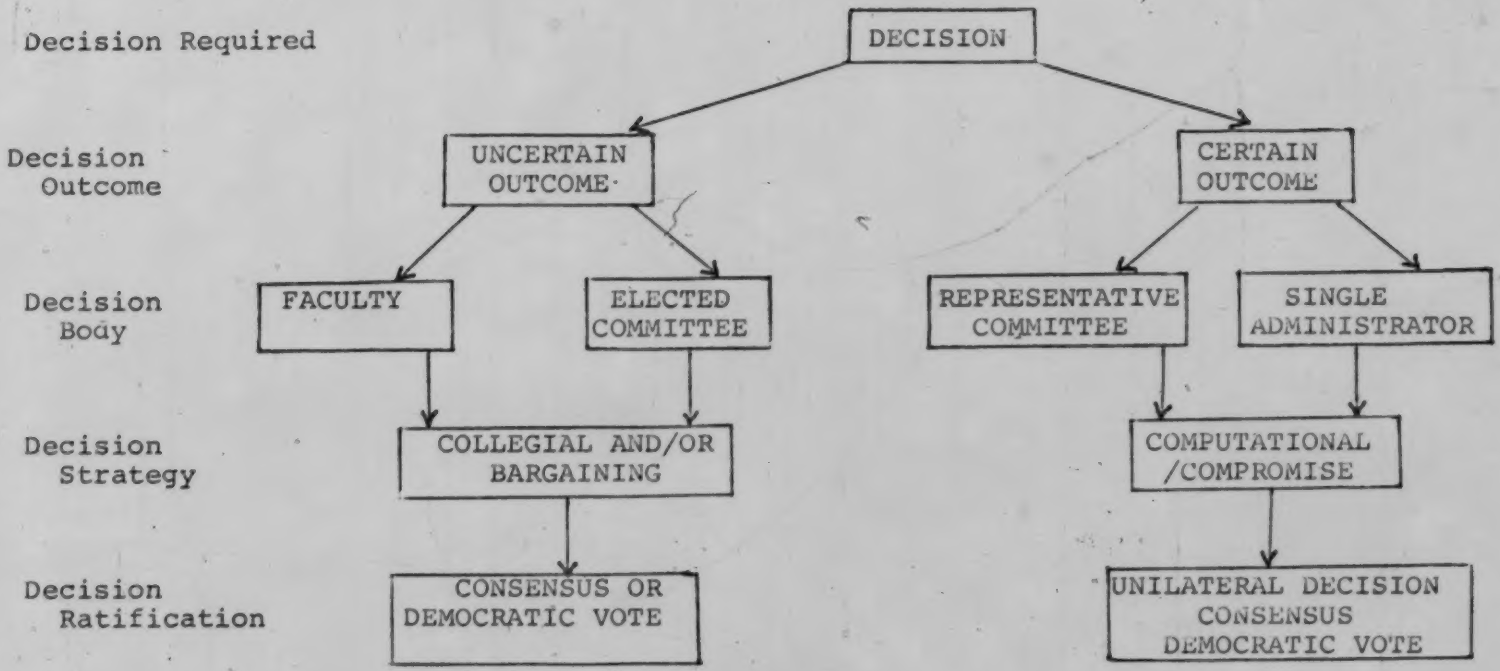
1. Outcomes are judged to be uncertain when they are concerned with policy development.

2. Outcomes are judged to be uncertain when they are concerned with the administration of personnel.

3. Outcomes are judged to be certain when they are related to the implementation of established policy.

4. Outcomes are judged to be certain when they are

Figure 10: Interrelating Factors Determining the Nature of Faculty Decision-Making Structures


Decision Required
DECISION
Decision Outcome
UNCERTAIN OUTCOME
CERTAIN OUTCOME
Decision Body
FACULTY
ELECTED COMMITTEE
REPRESENTATIVE COMMITTEE
SINGLE ADMINISTRATOR
Decision Strategy
COLLEGIAL AND/OR BARGAINING
COMPUTATIONAL /COMPROMISE
Decision Ratification
CONSENSUS OR DEMOCRATIC VOTE
UNILATERAL DECISION CONSENSUS DEMOCRATIC VOTE

related to administrative detail.

Where no certainty exists about the nature of final decisions, responsibility for decision-making tends to be vested in faculty as a whole, or in elected groups of nominated faculty. Decisions are taken as a result of collegial strategies or bargaining activities. They are generally ratified either by reaching consensus or by democratic vote.

Where certainty exists committees are usually representative of Departments, or decisions are made by single administrators. Similarly, where the decision is mainly a matter of interpreting policy, decisions tend to be computational. Where disagreement about interpretation of the "facts" may exist decisions may reflect a compromise strategy. Decisions will be made on a unilateral basis, or where disagreement over interpretation exists by reaching consensus or by democratic vote.

This model, as applied to the Faculty of Education studied, is illustrated in Chapter 4 (p. 125).

Thus, this study suggests a model of decision-making related to a Faculty which recognizes the relationship of strategies to issues as does Thompson's but which also emphasizes the impact of decision type and decision outcome on decision structures and procedures.

The Rationality of Decision-Making

In Chapter 2 Simon (1964:4) was noted as stating that in an organization, decision-making tends to be self-conscious, deliberate and rational. However, he claims that a number of variables interfere with the amount of rationality available for decision-making. Generally, these variables include:

> ... the inability of the system as a whole to provide maximum or even adequate information for decision-making, and the inability of the decision-maker to intellectually even handle the inadequate information that is available (Hall, 1972:266).

Support for this concept of limited rationality is reflected by some of the results of this study in several ways:

1. A lack of sufficient research to provide adequate information relevant to decisions to be made was noted by many interviewees. This information shortage was perceived to exist for the following reasons:

(i) Respondents were uncertain that committee members are always those with the most information or expertise in a particular decision area.

(ii) Time available for researching decisions, and for collating and analysing information is restricted for most participants by the pressure of their other professional commitments.

(iii) There is a lack of research assistants who could overcome the inadequacies noted in (i) and (ii).

(iv) The monetary cost of collecting data and feedback on decisions is high.

These conditions stimulated one respondent to describe the situation rather cruelly, yet succinctly:

> We make million dollar decisions in two-bit hamburger stands.

While such comment may be an unfair reflection of the effort expended on committee work by many, it does highlight the limitation of less than comprehensive information with which many committees have to cope.

2. The impact of lack of information upon the restriction of rationality is compounded by the situation whereby committees do not always have final authority. Thus, committees that have struggled with decision recommendations for weeks, that have researched and weighed the evidence carefully, may have their recommendations overturned in short periods by large bodies with neither the access to information nor the adequate time to consider it. On the occasions this does happen it is another blow to the rationality of decision-making.

3. Finally, this study identified decision behaviors that may well have contributed to rationality, but then again may not.

(i) Self-interest and protection of interests were regularly identified as motivations for participation. While behavior motivated in these ways may be rational in terms of achieving that self-interest, it may not lead to rationality in making a decision that requires a broader perspective.

Further, self-interest generally tends to inject an element of emotion into the decision process, which is unlikely to assist rationality.

(ii) There is some evidence that influentials often give strong direction to decision-making. Such influential behavior may be accepted on the basis of expertise, and as such contributes to rationality. However, many interviewees in this study viewed the acceptance of such influential behavior by faculty members as being a process established over a long period, often being a function of past performance, prestige, employment status and experience rather than a function of expertise in the decision area under consideration. If acceptance of influence is based on this, then it does not contribute to rationality.

Thus, even in an organization where members are skilled in the generation of data, the analysis of it, the eliciting of conclusions, and the synthesis of generalizations upon which to work, elements of organizational structure and personnel factors impede on decision processes to such an extent that, as Simon (1957) predicts, decisions can only be made on the basis of "bounded rationality".

Models of Academic Governance at the Faculty Level

In Chapter 2 four models of academic governance were described. Three of these were structural models. The bureaucratic model emphasized the rational, formal, hierarchical aspects of decision-making. The collegial model emphasized professional freedom, democratic consultation, consensus, and attention to people and ideas. It rejected status and authority hierarchies. The mixed model saw the collegial model as juxtaposed upon the bureaucratic structure. Baldridge's political model was based on decision processes and rejected the other three.

> When we look at dynamic processes that explode on the modern campus today we see neither the rigid, formal aspects of bureaucracy nor the calm, consensus-directed elements of an academic collegium (Baldridge, 1971:8).

Rather, decision-making is a negotiating, bargaining and political influence process.

This study lent much support to Baldridge's concept of the process of decision-making. The divergent responses by Department and by other groups; the varying motivations for involvement in decision-making; the role of influentials in decision-making; the stated need by many to learn how to use the system to achieve their own ends; and the impact of the personalities of Deans and Department Chairmen on the context for decision-making singly, and in interaction, lend support to the concept of a university as an institution where conflict is natural; power blocs and interest groups exist; groups of élites govern decisions; and formal authority is severely limited by political pressures and bargaining.

Of course, the Faculty studied is not the "political jungle, alive and screaming" to which Baldridge (1971:9) refers. But then the Faculty is only a sub-system of the organization discussed by Baldridge. The possibilities for the existence of power or interest groups is reduced by lesser numbers and by some communality of interest imposed by membership of a Faculty which has a clearly identifiable purpose.

Baldridge acknowledges the role both the bureaucratic model and the collegial model play in explaining decision-making processes.

> What is needed is a model that can include consensus factors and bureaucratic processes and that can also grapple with power plays, conflict and the rough and tumble politics of a large university (Baldridge, 1971:9).

However, the emphasis he places on the political process in decision-making for policy formulation means that a number of factors particularly relevant to Faculty governance tend to be underrated.

1. Many decisions are reached within the heavily restraining limits of external constraints (e.g., financial decisions). In particular cases, (e.g., the addition of new personnel) regardless of the political nature of the decision process, the decisions are virtually determined or at best limited by the constraints (e.g., financial limitations) prior to the actual process.

2. A number of decisions are made in a Faculty

which are facilitating decisions, decisions that are not part of any formal process but are essential to the maintenance of present conditions, to the implementation of the spirit of formal policy, and to the continued functioning of the organization. These are not policy decisions and are hard to define as policy execution decisions. They often result because policy decisions fail to take into account the administrative implications of policy requirements. They are usually made by individuals on a needs basis and reflect first, the present need, and second, the requirements of policy execution. Very often it is these decisions that colour final decision outcomes, rather than the bargaining political process decisions taken at a policy level.

While this process is acknowledged by Baldridge in his "Policy Execution" stage it seems to be underrated as an important decision process within itself.

3. The bureaucratic structure can be helpful in explaining several aspects of the processes that give dynamism to the structure.

(i) Within the Faculty studied it was evident that members in authority positions, e.g., Dean or Department Chairman, by virtue of their position, were often privy to information relevant to the influences upon, consequences of, and constraints upon decision-making in particular issues. Access to information by virtue of position gives some a stronger hand than others in the political process of policy making.

(ii) Because of the nature of the position of the administrator, especially in the execution of policy, he has a special role to play. By virtue of his unilateral involvement in facilitating decisions he can, and may often be forced to shape policy decision outcomes, in his attempts to make policy administratively feasible.

(iii) This study suggested that there is at least some relationship between the personality of the Dean and Department Chairman and the nature of decision processes that exist within a Faculty or Departments. The nature of this relationship was not defined.

However, many interviewees referred to it either directly or indirectly with the following types of comments.

> For example, compare the past and present Dean. They are different, but both are effective.
>
> Take, for example, the case of organization under an authoritarian predecessor ...
>
> The era when the Dean shaped the Faculty is passed.

One can infer that an understanding of the personality and attitude of people holding positions in the formal structure will assist an understanding of decision processes.

Each of the points made in (3) illustrates that there are a number of factors associated with the formal structure of an organization which may be relevant in describing and explaining the nature of decision-making processes.

Thus, the belief that the bureaucratic paradigm "... explains much about the formal structure but very little about the processes that give dynamism to the structure" (Baldridge, 1971:4) was not completely substantiated by the study.

4. In Chapter 2 it was noted that Dykes (1968:40) derides collegiality as a romanticized perception of past involvement; and that Baldridge (1971:6) describes the collegial model as a utopian objective. However, in a discussion of decision-making processes the collegial model, as described in Chapter 4, does have a role to play in explaining the process. This study showed fairly explicitly that for the Faculty of Education at least, members expressed expectations for involvement that reflect a commitment to the collegial model. They expected to be involved as a community (viz. a preference for JOINT ACTION); in interviews they emphasized the importance of technical competence; and in decision ratification the approach of agreement by consensus was often adhered to.

Thus, the processes of decision-making can at least be partly understood in terms of the collegial expectations of faculty. Of course, whether decision behavior always matches collegial expectations is another question.

A Suggested Model for Understanding Academic Governance

The import of what is written above is very simple:

1. Structures established for academic governance cannot be understood in terms of only one of the several existing models.

2. Different models are important in describing and explaining different dimensions, inputs and outputs of the same decision process.

Figure 11 illustrates a model which tries to account for the combination of inputs of different models of academic governance at the Faculty level.

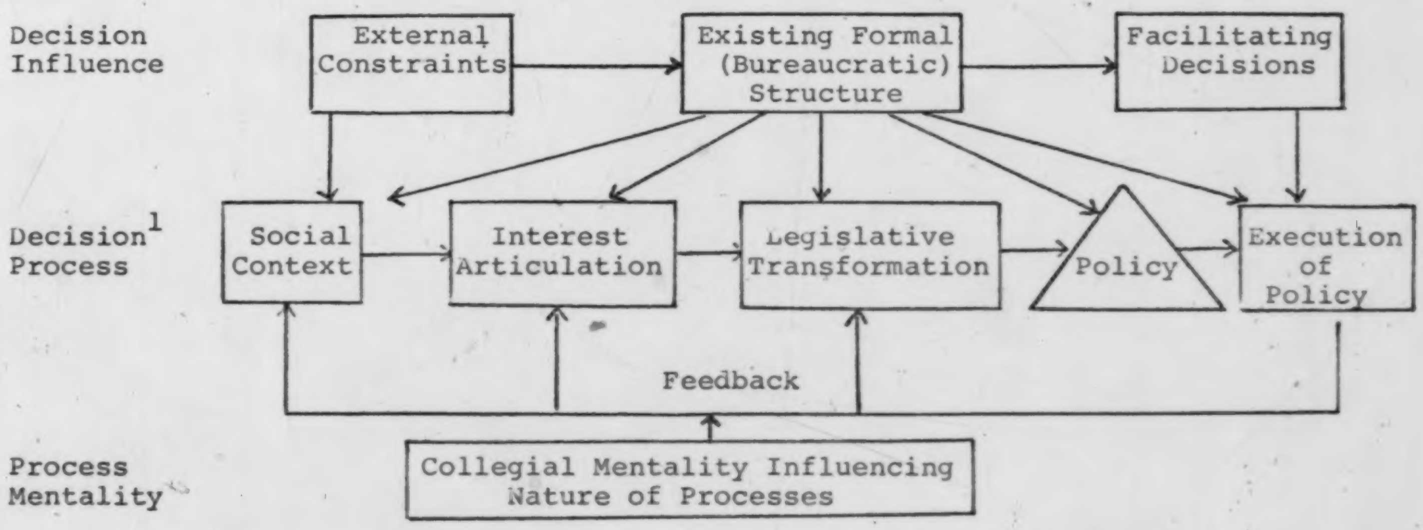
The model identifies three influences on decision-making at the Faculty level. It suggests that any description or explanation of Faculty decision-making requires an understanding of all three.

1. The decision influence refers to the impact that three factors may have on the total decision process:

(i) External constraints such as, for example, finance or political expectations, will influence the decision process by limiting the parameters within which decisions may be made. They are recognized as sometimes imposing major restrictions on the place of, or need for political decision behavior. They may also influence the constitution of the formal or bureaucratic structure, e.g., through influence on the ratio of administrators to instructors.

(ii) The nature of the existing formal structure

Figure 11: Decision Processes in a Faculty: A Combinatorial Model


Decision Influence
Decision[1] Process
Process Mentality
External Constraints
Existing Formal (Bureaucratic) Structure
Facilitating Decisions
Social Context
Interest Articulation
Legislative Transformation
Policy
Execution of Policy
Feedback
Collegial Mentality Influencing Nature of Processes

---

[1] After Baldridge's (1971) simple political model

and of the people in it is a source of influence affecting the type of political processes that occur in decision-making. For example, this will have an influence on the decision process, by virtue of the advantages position gives to some members on an individual basis regarding, say, access to information. Such advantages have been noted earlier in this chapter. The formal structure also allows for some people to be more involved in making facilitative decisions than others.

(iii) A wide variety of facilitating decisions occur in the maintenance of faculty activities which do not reflect the political processes of decision-making, but are a unilateral response to an urgent need related to system maintenance. These were discussed earlier in this chapter. They will have an influence which may lead to modification of planned decision outcomes.

2. The decision process is based on Baldridge's (1971) simple political model. This is central to the whole model. The appropriateness of the Baldridge model in explaining the political processes was noted earlier in this chapter.

(i) Social context refers to the social conditions which promote the formation of divergent values and interest groups.

(ii) Interest articulation refers to the methods interest groups use to bring pressure to bear.

(iii) Legislative transformation refers to the translation of multiple pressures into policy.

(iv) Policy is the commitment to certain goals and values.

(v) Execution of policy is the act of implementing policy.

3. The process mentality refers to the beliefs that instructors hold about involvement in decision-making.

Many faculty bring to the political process of decision-making positive attitudes about the essentiality of collegiality. This in turn influences the nature of the process.

It should be noted that the implications for such a model emerged from one case study. It reflects a possible approach to the analysis of Faculty decision-making. Only after further application with a number of Faculties should it be accepted with certainty as an acceptable model.

Finally, as a model it differs little from the Baldridge model with the exception that it specifically identifies the important roles that the formal structure, external constraints, instructor attitudes about decision-making involvement, and facilitating decisions play in determining the nature of the decision process.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

In this section several topics are discussed in an attempt to identify fruitful areas for further research in an area rarely researched; and to discuss implications of the present research for further research and research techniques.

The Problem of Faulty Perceptions

One of the major difficulties in the study related to the problem of attempting to explain discrepancies between respondent's perceptions of their level of involvement in decision-making and actual possibilities existing for involvement. Furthermore, the study clearly illustrated that discrepancies existed between the differing abilities of respondents to perceive accurately their levels of effective involvement in decision-making. This problem of perception has two important implications for research that make it worth separate treatment.

1. It illustrates the caution with which a body of respondents' descriptions of an existing situation must be accepted. Such descriptions are, in effect, more likely to be an indicator of the individual respondent's perceptual acuity, than a description of the actual situation. Thus, in research like this study, attitude expression must be recognized as a function of a wide variety of organizational structure and personnel factors

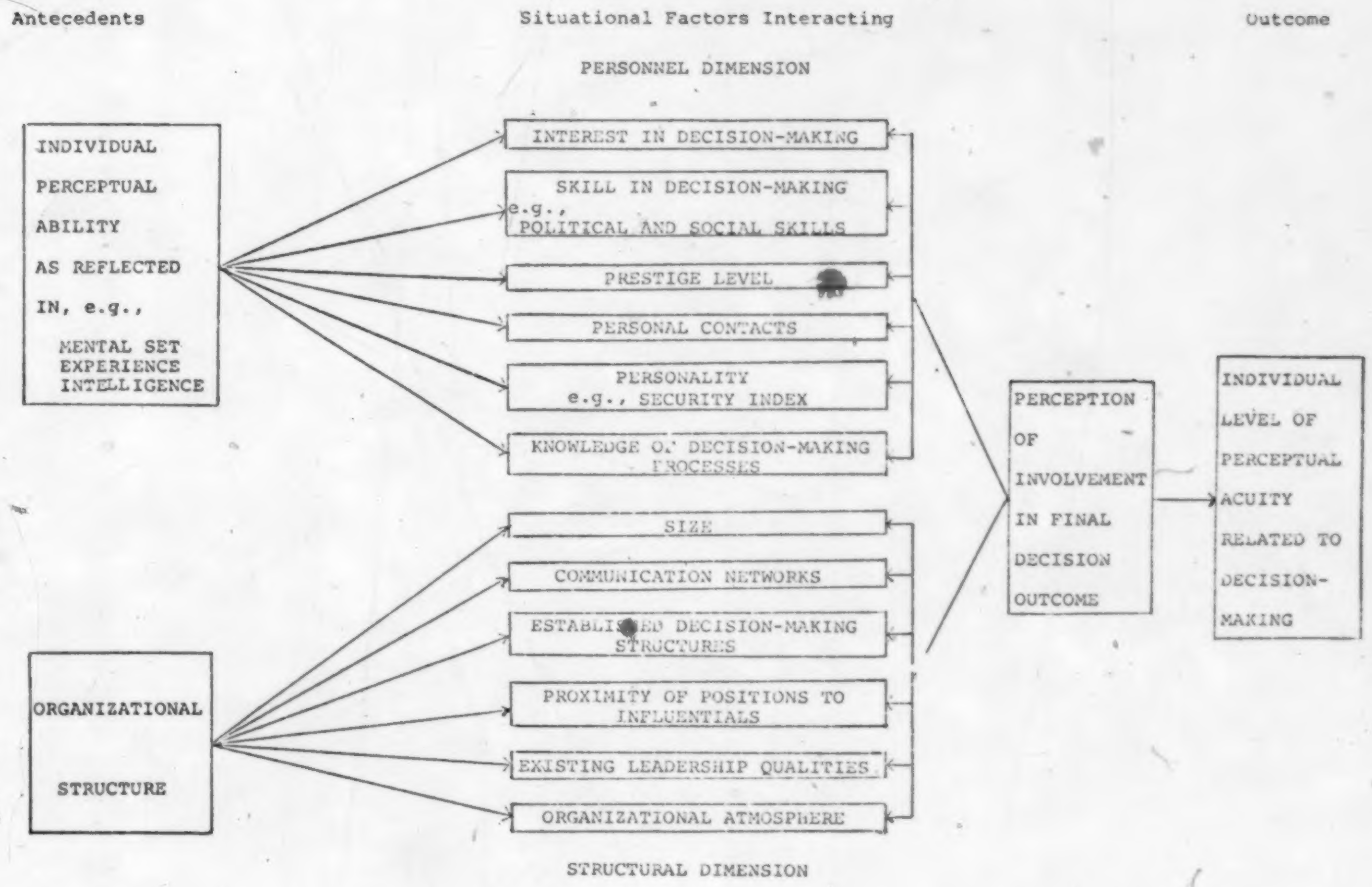
which enhance or impede a person's capability of accurate judgement.

2. More specifically, this study, in attempting to define instructors' perceptions of decision-making, identified twelve personnel and structural characteristics, which, in interaction, appear to indirectly interfere with or improve the individual's perception of an organization's decision-making structure. These were referred to briefly in Chapter 6. Identification of these factors came mainly through an analysis of interviewees' responses and especially of the influences that impeded the interviewee's ability to describe clearly the present decision-making situation. Conclusions were also drawn from the analysis of the Faculty decision-making structure which is described in Chapter 4.

These factors are illustrated in Figure 12. In the majority of cases the factors impede perception indirectly, usually by influencing the individual's ability to see the effects of his participation in final decision outcomes. Results of the study which are reported in earlier chapters suggested that, where members failed to perceive their influence in final outcomes, they were also unlikely to gauge accurately the possibilities for involvement.

Figure 12 suggests that an individual brings to a given organizational structure a specific ability to

Figure 12: Factors Influencing the Perceptual Acuity of Respondents


Antecedents
Situational Factors Interacting
Outcome
PERSONNEL DIMENSION
INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTUAL ABILITY AS REFLECTED IN, e.g., MENTAL SET EXPERIENCE INTELLIGENCE
INTEREST IN DECISION-MAKING
SKILL IN DECISION-MAKING e.g., POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SKILLS
PRESTIGE LEVEL
PERSONAL CONTACTS
PERSONALITY e.g., SECURITY INDEX
KNOWLEDGE OF DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
SIZE
COMMUNICATION NETWORKS
ESTABLISHED DECISION-MAKING STRUCTURES
PROXIMITY OF POSITIONS TO INFLUENTIALS
EXISTING LEADERSHIP QUALITIES
ORGANIZATIONAL ATMOSPHERE
STRUCTURAL DIMENSION
PERCEPTION OF INVOLVEMENT IN FINAL DECISION OUTCOME
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL OF PERCEPTUAL ACUITY RELATED TO DECISION-MAKING

perceive which is a function of his previous experience, intelligence and existing mental set. As a result of the ensuing interaction of the organization and the individual in decision-making processes, several situational factors influence the individual's perception of his involvement, as illustrated in the final decision outcomes. This in turn, influences his ability to perceive accurately possibilities for involvement in decision-making.

The personnel situational factors include the following:

(i) Interest in Decision-Making: This leads to a heightened awareness of the nature of decision-making processes.

(ii) Skill in Decision-Making: This has at least two aspects. Political skills refer, for example, to the ability to participate effectively in meetings, and to utilize interest group action to achieve specific objectives. Social skills are closely related to political but refer, for example, to the ability to become visible to other members of the organization, and to be able to establish personal contacts with other members.

(iii) Prestige Level: This refers to the esteem in which a member is held by others. It was noted in Chapter 7 that members lacking prestige in the eyes of others find it extremely difficult to have their attempts at participation accepted. Prestige was identified by several interviewees as a function of age, experience, local identity, and years employed at the University.

(iv) Personal Contacts: This refers to the manner in which decision influentials indirectly afford influence to some members that they would not otherwise have.

(v) Personality: This refers to the manner in which an individual's personality influences his role in decision-making. One important aspect of this was described by several interviewees as an "insecurity index". One interviewee identified the "insecurity index" and described its effect on the individual in the following way.

> The term "insecurity index" refers to the mentality of staff who feel uncomfortable in the political nature of the Faculty setting. These people react in two ways. In some there is a need to be abreast of all that is transpiring. Suspicion of the situation leads to excessive suspicion of political machinations. Others withdraw from the whole situation.

In contrast, others were seen to exist who were described in the following way:

> Then there are the gung-ho types, with absolute confidence in their contribution, and a perception of self-enlightenment.

It is likely that each type referred to would see their role, and their success in different ways.

(vi) Knowledge of Decision-Making Processes: This refers to the level of ability to perceive accurately the possibilities for involvement in decision-making.

The factors referred to above are not discrete entities, but are interrelated and interact with each other to influence the individual's perception. They also interact with several structural factors which are described below.

(i) Size: This refers to the number of Faculty members. The size of the institution in this study, for example, was shown to inhibit truly participative decision-making.

(ii) Communication Networks: This refers to the mechanism by which information is disseminated throughout the Faculty. In this context two types of information are relevant-- information relating to actual decisions to be made, and information about possibilities for involvement in decision-making processes. As reported in earlier chapters this study suggested that neither appeared to be equally distributed among faculty members.

(iii) Established Decision-Making Structures: This refers to existing decision-making procedures, and is clearly a determinant of the possibilities for involving faculty. e.g., it has been illustrated in earlier chapters that some are far more involved in committee work than others.

(iv) Proximity of Positions of Influentials: This refers to a member's involvement in a Department, subject area, or course program in which decision influentials are also involved. This can improve the perceived effectiveness of his involvement in decision-making.

(v) Existing Leadership Qualities: This refers to opportunities for involvement that the Dean, Department Chairmen and Division Co-ordinators provide. Interviewees suggested that these have differed historically, with different types of involvement according to the attitudes of the incumbent Dean or Department Chairman. These attitudes are related to the beliefs they hold about leadership.

(vi) Organizational Atmosphere: This refers to the attitudes held by faculty members generally about the possibilities for their involvement, and the esteem in which their participation is held.

As with personnel factors, these are not discrete factors but are interrelated each with the other. It should be emphasized again that these situational factors influence perceptual acuity indirectly through their impact on perception of involvement in final decision outcomes. As indicated in previous chapters, this study suggested a relationship between the way an individual sees his participation reflected in final decision outcomes and the way in which he perceives the level of his involvement.

In the section on Implications for Further Research several questions are posed relating to the influence of these factors, which require further research. It may be that this is the area most worthy of research of all. Although the problem has only been identified in one case, it would seem that one major difficulty associated with implementing a concept of faculty participation in decision-making is developing an understanding among faculty of the role already available for them to play. If research could identify the dimensions that are most heavily weighted as influences on perceptual clarity then administrators may be able to direct action towards reducing these influences.

Support for Existing Research

Table 45 lists a number of research findings identified in the Literature Review in Chapter 2 which are relevant to this study. Also indicated is the level of support for each finding emerging from the study results. For those supported fully by the present study no comment is necessary, except to note that the finding recorded in the Table refers to decision-making for the University as a whole. Where agreement in this study is indicated by a cross (x) then it suggests that the attitudes, characteristics or behaviors are applicable at both the University system and sub-system (Faculty) level. Where no support is indicated this simply means that no

Table 45: A Comparison of Study Findings With Other Research Findings

Other Research Findings	Support	Partial Support	No Support	Conflict
Gladiatorial or oligarchical patterns of participation prevail. (Mortimer, 1971)	x			
Appointment on committees is often dependent on personal contacts. (Mortimer, 1971)		x		
Sex discrimination on committees apparent. (Mortimer, 1971)		x		
Status discrimination on committees apparent. (Mortimer, 1971)		x		
The higher the status the more likely the attendance at meetings. (Yuker, 1971)		x		
Instructors are ambivalent towards participation. (Dykes, 1968)				x
Instructors believe participation is essential to the functioning of the University. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
A lack of communication impedes involvement. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
The influence of non-academic personnel is an impediment to involvement. (Dykes, 1968)			x	
Instructors participate through a sense of duty. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Instructors participate to protect their interests. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Instructors participate through self-interest. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Involvement is impeded by time available. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Time spent on inconsequential matters is an impediment to involvement. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Lack of interest of instructors is an impediment. (Dykes, 1968)		x		
Instructor orientation to discipline is an impediment to involvement. (Dykes, 1968; Palola, 1971)				x
Few participatory devices provide an opportunity for meaningful participation. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
There is a discrepancy between what an instructor's role is and what he perceives it to be. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Instructors see Administrators as adversaries. (Dykes, 1968)			x	
Instructors view decision-making in a simplistic manner. (Dykes, 1968)	x			
Instructors participate for external concerns rather than because of a belief that it helps teaching and research. (Palola *et al.*, 1971)	x			
Administrators tend to report estimates of levels of participation at higher levels than do instructors. (Dykes, 1968; Pardee, 1971)	x			
Any decision-making process within a University must grapple with power plays, conflict and rough and tumble politics. (Baldridge, 1970:7-8)	x			

evidence was revealed by the study to either support or deny the existing result.

There were seven research findings, however, about which this study raised questions, either by introducing conflicting evidence or evidence which only partially supported existing beliefs. These included:

1. Appointment on committees is often dependent on personal contacts. The study lent some support to this by noting the role of prestige and rank; the importance of contact with influentials; and the difficulty experienced by newcomers in establishing a known identity which would assist in their selection on committees. However, the study also identified a variety of avenues for obtaining membership, including volunteering and nomination from the floor. These suggested that appointment on committees is a function not only of personal contacts, but also of strength of personal desire to be involved and personal skill in using the processes of involvement to become involved.

2. Sex discrimination on committees is apparent. This was supported to the extent that some Female interviewees perceived such a discrimination; that a slightly smaller percentage of Females than Males were involved in formally established Faculty committees; and that a larger percentage of Females than Males claimed not to be involved in Department and Faculty committees. However, a higher percentage of Females claimed to be

involved in University committees. Further, some Females were involved at all levels of Faculty committee work. It should also be noted that numerically Females constitute less than 20% of the Faculty population, a fact which places marked limitations on involvement in all aspects of Faculty decision-making processes.

3. Status discrimination on committees is apparent. This was evident in this study to the extent that a higher percentage of Professors than Associate or Assistant Professors perceived themselves as involved in Faculty and University committees. However, it was not supported to the extent that the reverse was the case in Department committees.

4. The higher the status the more likely the attendance at meetings. This was supported by the fact that Professors were more regular attenders at Faculty and University level meetings than were the other statuses. However, Professors were also more likely to be members of the various committees at this level than were either Associate Professors or Assistant Professors. At Department Staff and Department committee meetings, Assistant Professors claimed to be the most regular attenders and Professors the least regular.

5. Lack of interest of instructors is an impediment to involvement in decision-making. This was supported to the extent that 28% of interviewees identified this as a factor impeding involvement in decision-making. However,

other responses, notably the expressed belief in the essentiality of involvement; and the acknowledgement of professional concern and self-interest as major motivations for involvement; as well as the actual level of instructor participation in existing decision-making structures, all suggest that lack of interest is not a major factor for the majority of instructors influencing their level of involvement.

6. Instructors are ambivalent towards participation. Dykes (1968:3) noted that while faculty asserted the essentiality of Faculty participation they placed it at the bottom of their priority list. This study did not require respondents to priorise their activities. However, the general importance assigned by instructors to involvement; their preferences for JOINT ACTION involvement; their involvement in committees, and their willingness to remain involved at the same level as present all deny the existence of such ambivalence among instructors.

This conflict in results is possibly explained in terms of the level of the investigation. Dykes was researching at the level of the University. This study concentrated on the Faculty and Department level. It is possible that levels of concern at the Department or Faculty level are more likely to be activated in actual decision involvement than at the University level, where involvement is not as easily seen to be directly applicable or as immediately relevant to the individual instructors' teaching and research area.

7. Instructor orientation to discipline is an impediment to involvement. This study suggested that for a majority of decision items there was no relationship between an instructor's discipline-orientation and his preferences for decision involvement. Further, for some items (identified in Chapter 6) discipline-orientation appeared to be related to a desire for greater involvement in decision-making.

Similar to the contradiction noted in relation to instructor ambivalence, it is possible that the explanation resides in the level of decision-making studied. It is possible that discipline-oriented instructors are more likely to identify decisions made within the Department as more relevant to them than decisions made at the University level. This tendency is clearly identified in the data relating to discipline-orientation, which is reported in Chapter 6.

Support for Existing Scholarly Opinion

In Table 46 a number of scholarly opinions on instructor involvement in decision-making identified in the Literature Review in Chapter 2 are listed. Of the opinions only two exist which this study failed to support.

1. Collegiality overcomes the impersonality and meaninglessness of administration in large universities.

Table 46: A Comparison of Study Findings with Scholarly Opinion

Scholarly Opinion	Support	Partial Support	No Support	Conflict
Decision-making processes need to encourage compromise, co-operation, and common stances. (Wharton, 1971:242)			x	
Staff orientation and existing organizational climate are related to the form of instructor participation in decision-making. (Golatz, 1973:457)	x			
Collegiality overcomes the impersonality and meaninglessness of administration in large Universities. (Goodman, 1962; Millet, 1962)				x
Collegiality can only remain as an utopian objective. (Baldridge, 1971:6; Pfinister, 1970;432)	x			
Devotion to one's academic discipline weakens instructor dedication to University affairs. (Arbeiter, 1971:283; Parsons, 1971:489)				x
Faculties are not capable of decisive action in decision-making. (Pfinister, 1970:438)	x			
Increased sharing in governance has led to a decline in its effectiveness. (Mash, 1972:288-90)	x			

Implicit within this statement is the assumption that collegiality as a method of decision-making is a possibility within a University. This study suggests that although some decision bodies seek decision by consensus, the concept of decisions by a body of "academic equals" cannot exist within the structure. Academics are neither equal nor perceived as equal by other academics. Prestige lends weight to some roles and lack of prestige impedes others. Knowledge of and skill in decision processes is not evenly dispersed among faculty, to the detriment of some and the profit of others. Information relative to decisions is not equally available to all. Interests in decision-making are often selfish before common. Even in committees taking decisions by consensus these decisions are often subject to ratification in large groups in which size, prestige, personal confidence, and a variety of other factors impede any form of management in which all members of the academic community participate fully and equally.

2. Devotion to one's academic discipline weakens instructor dedication to University affairs. There was no evidence to support this opinion. In several areas it seems that devotion to academic discipline actually strengthened the instructor's devotion to University affairs, especially in the areas of appointment and evaluation of personnel, and professional activity relating to the provision of courses and involvement

activity.

Implications for Further Research

Although this study analysed only one Faculty several questions are raised by it which could well be the focus of further research in the area of Faculty governance.

1. Several conflicts or partial conflicts with already existing research on University governance generally, arose. These appeared to be the result of greater faculty willingness to convert their beliefs about the essentiality of faculty involvement in decision-making into actual involvement, the closer the decision body was to the Department level. This tendency of faculty to believe in the importance of involvement but to be ambivalent in their attitude toward actual involvement, especially as organizational distance from the Department increases, provokes two questions:

(i) In expressing preferences for involvement in decision-making do faculty distinguish between the possibilities for involvement at different levels, or do they generalize from preferences within their own Department, or even discipline area, to the University as a whole ?

(ii) Is the administrative need to involve faculty in decision-making at the Department level the same as that at the Faculty or University level?

2. This study was confined to a Faculty mainly

concerned with the education of teachers, administrators, and other education-related professions. Within the Faculty, however, there were indications of differences between Departments regarding attitudes about perceptions of, and preferences for involvement in decision-making. e.g., respondents from Elementary Education and Educational Administration were more likely to indicate conditions of decisional equilibrium than were respondents from other Departments (see Chapter 6). Very often these differences polarized the Departments into two groups-- those primarily concerned with curriculum and administration and those primarily concerned with disciplines such as psychology, philosophy, sociology, history, etc. These differences provoke two questions:

(i) Are attitudes about, perceptions of, and preferences for involvement influenced by the type of the respondent's Department?

(ii) More specifically, is there a relationship between faculty's attitudes about, perceptions of, and preferences for involvement in decision-making and their membership in a Faculty or Department that is either vocationally oriented (e.g., Education, Elementary Education) or discipline-oriented (e.g., Arts, Philosophy)?

3. This study supported a number of existing studies in noting that Administrators tend to perceive the Instructor's role as one of far greater involvement than do Instructors. This suggests the following

questions:

(i) Why do Administrators perceive the same conditions in a clearly different way to Instructors?

(ii) More specifically, is there a relationship between the differing perceptions of Administrators and Instructors and: (a) the nature of the particular decision-making tasks?

(b) the relative positions of the two groups in the decision-making process?

(c) the relative beliefs of the two groups about the representativeness of representative committees?

4. The study noted that although the Faculty's formal decision-making structure was based on the concept of faculty involvement in decision-making wherever possible either directly or through representation , a large number of Instructors generally tended to perceive themselves as not being involved. The data gained in this study suggested that, to a large degree,this could be explained in terms of a number of personnel and structural features within the Faculty organization, which contributed to misperception of the faculty role. Several questions arise from these findings:

(i) How universally applicable is the concept of the personnel and structural dimensions of the organization in interaction as an impediment of accurate perception of the nature of instructor involvement in decision-making?

(ii) Are the factors identified those most appropriate for explaining this condition of misperception?

(iii) Can any factors be identified which contribute more significantly than others to the existence of misperception?

5. One major concern of respondents in this study was for the effectiveness of committees, and especially for the efficiency with which decisions were reached; for the rationality underlying decisions; for the skill of members in making committees work; and for the jurisdiction of committees over final decisions. Several questions result from this concern.

(i) Do high quality decisions consistently emerge from some committees compared to others? If so, what factors of committee constitution can be identified as contributing to such a differentiation?

(ii) Is there a skill of committee membership and committee behavior? What factors contribute more heavily than others? Are these skills more likely to exist in particular types of people than others? e.g., are they a function of personality, experience, prestige, rank or status? Can faculty be trained in these skills?

(iii) What is the relationship, if any, between the level of jurisdiction a committee has over the final decision and the performance of committee members in committee processes?

(iv) To what extent do committee members in Faculties and Departments have the required expertise to make relevant decisions? To what extent are committee members' qualifications matched with committee decision requirements? To what extent do committees gain the expertise and research support required to ensure as rational decisions as possible? What role does rank, employment status and personal prestige play in coloring final decision outcomes, both in committee and staff meetings?

6. In Chapter 4 it was observed that the formally established decision-making structure may not always be representative of the actual decision-making processes that occur in this particular Faculty of Education. At least four factors were identified in this study which impede the formal structure representing the actual decision-making process. These included the apparent lack of congruence of the loci of power in decision-making, with the formal decision structure; the influence of the personality and attitudes of individual Department Chairmen; the impact of external agencies on the nature of decisions; and the diffuseness of decision-making.

These factors evoke several questions:

(i) Can the formal decision-making structure of a Faculty and the loci of power in decision-making ever be congruent? What factors lead to lack of congruency? What attitudes towards the decision-making process does such a lack of congruency evoke in instructors?

(ii) Is there a significant relationship between the personality of individual Deans / Department Chairmen and the nature of the formal decision-making structure of a Faculty or Department?

(iii) To what extent are external influences acting upon final decision outcomes a dominating factor in Faculty decision-making? In other words, to what extent do Faculties control their own destiny in decision-making?

(iv) How congruent are the majority of decisions made by formal decision bodies with decisions as they are applied in the practical situation? What are the intervening factors which impede the application of major decisions in a manner that reflects their major intent?

7. In this particular study it was noted that faculty tended to define the boundaries within which they preferred to retain their involvement as being the Department boundaries. They were more likely to want JOINT ACTION involvement in in-department decision areas than in out-of-department decision areas, and were more likely to be regular attenders at Department Staff meetings than at others. This tendency was ameliorated to the extent that Professors were involved in University, Provincial, National and International decision-making to a greater extent than others, with a consequent lesser

involvement at the Department level. This poses two questions:

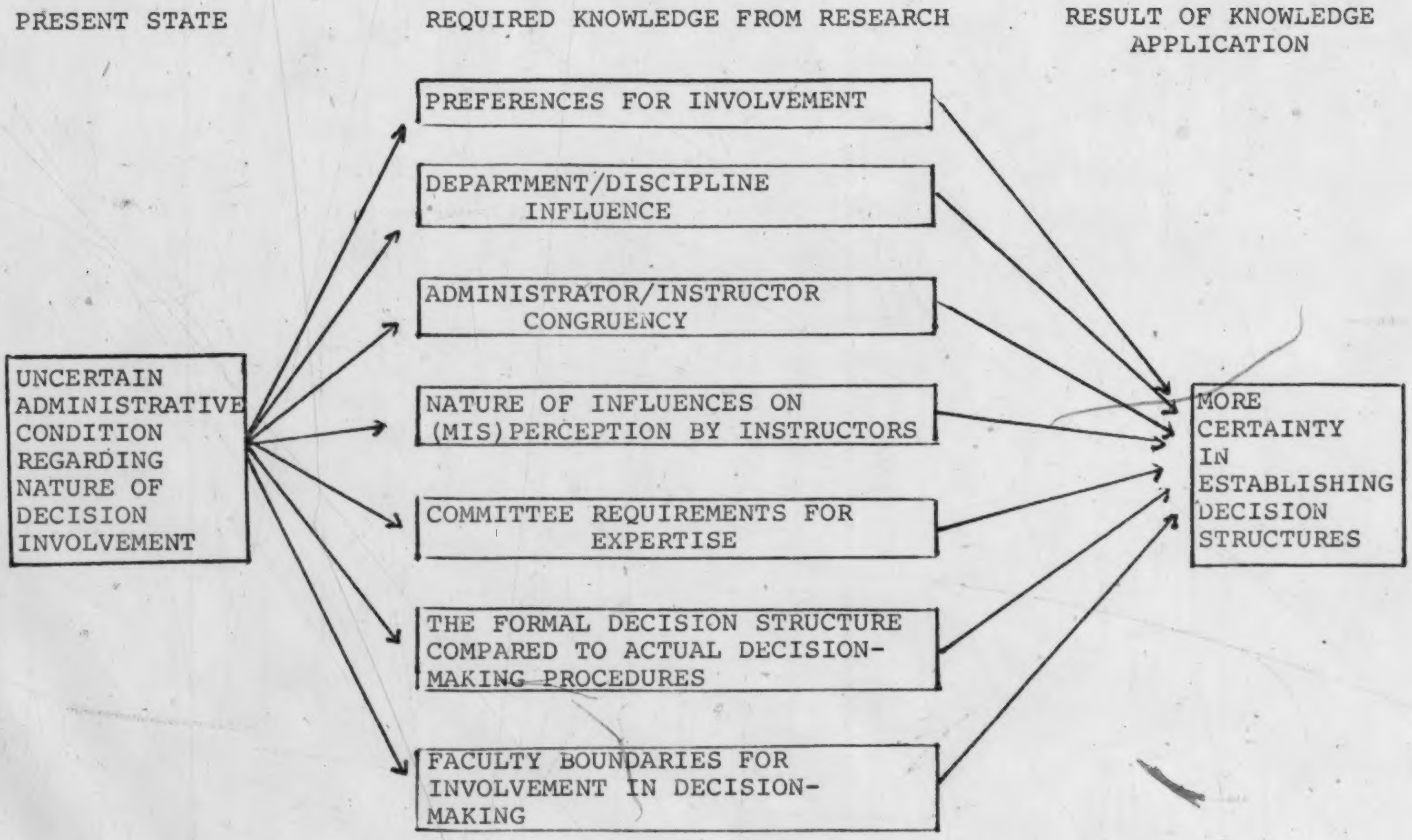
(i) To what extent is the tendency to perceive decision-making interest boundaries as the Department boundaries a universal characteristic among instructors in Universities?

(ii) What are the underlying factors causing Professors to grow out of their role of involvement in decision-making at the Department level? Is increasing involvement at the University level and outside the University an inevitable outcome of professorial status; a reflection of boundary spanning activities on the part of Professors; or a function of some other factor?

Implications for Practice of this Further Research

Figure 13 summarizes the requirements indicated above for further research in the area of academic governance at the Faculty level. As Figure 13 suggests the information gleaned from this study implies that some caution must be exhibited in assuming that the actual decision-making process reflects the formally organized decision-making processes. However, the study does propose a series of questions, the answers to which would result in more certainty in the establishment of effective decision structures, and therefore, in improving administrative practice.

Figure 13: Implications of Further Research for Practice


PRESENT STATE
REQUIRED KNOWLEDGE FROM RESEARCH
RESULT OF KNOWLEDGE APPLICATION
UNCERTAIN ADMINISTRATIVE CONDITION REGARDING NATURE OF DECISION INVOLVEMENT
PREFERENCES FOR INVOLVEMENT
DEPARTMENT/DISCIPLINE INFLUENCE
ADMINISTRATOR/INSTRUCTOR CONGRUENCY
NATURE OF INFLUENCES ON (MIS)PERCEPTION BY INSTRUCTORS
COMMITTEE REQUIREMENTS FOR EXPERTISE
THE FORMAL DECISION STRUCTURE COMPARED TO ACTUAL DECISION-MAKING PROCEDURES
FACULTY BOUNDARIES FOR INVOLVEMENT IN DECISION-MAKING
MORE CERTAINTY IN ESTABLISHING DECISION STRUCTURES

The Implications for Research Techniques in Further Research

In such a focus on further research as illustrated above, the methods of research employed should be expanded upon those used in this study. The survey questionnaire, interviews and document search provided a considerable amount of relevant information on existing procedures, attitudes, preferences and perceptions about involvement in decision-making. The questionnaire proved extremely useful as a parsimonious technique of gathering a vast amount of data from a large number of respondents. However, the specific warnings associated with this particular questionnaire, and noted in Chapter 3, should be heeded in making required modifications.

The techniques used should not be replaced by, but rather supplemented by both non-participant observer and participant observer techniques. Observer techniques are essential to the understanding of the processes, functions and dysfunctions of decision-making because it is an ongoing and sequential process. Influences on the process, such as individual prestige, employment status, and skill in decision-making can only be observed over lengthy periods of time if emerging generalizations are to be valid.

Non-participant observation is essential because decision-making involves a wide range of behaviors that cannot be recorded on a questionnaire and may not emerge in interview. Non-participant observation is a technique providing an opportunity for such study using a previously established analytical framework. The analytical framework could be based on the results of this study.

Finally, involvement in decision-making processes; attempting to participate in the processes; developing, suffering and learning from frustration; and establishing perceptions and preferences appears to be an extremely complicated and sensitive process. Personal experiences of this, preferably recorded within a previously established framework, are likely to be more fruitful in providing information than a questionnaire eliciting the same data. Questionnaires in such areas appear to suffer from being a response in retrospect, in which data on personal experiences, preferences and frustrations have to be recalled at a later time.

Such an approach, therefore, suggests a complicated study team, different from the basic concept of the researcher and the researched. For research in areas such as those suggested above, a minimum study team of two is essential. One member would normally have no employment ties to the institution(s) investigated, the other(s) would normally be involved in a number of decision processes as a regular part of employment by that institution. As the number of institutions studied increased so would the number of the latter be increased.

In this way data gained from questionnaire and interview techniques and document research can be supported and clarified by:

1. Information on the dynamics of Faculty decision-making formalized within a structured framework.

2. Personal experiences, reactions, perceptions and preferences related to the processes recorded as they take place, or as they develop.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

This study has implications for two aspects of practice.

Implications for Practice within the Faculty Studied

At least four areas of concern were identified for the present functioning of the formal decision structure of the Faculty of Education.

1. The research suggested that there were some who are far more heavily involved than others. This was reflected in the number of Professors who indicated conditions of decisional saturation; the number who wanted to reduce their time commitment; and the maintenance by some of up to four formal committee positions while others were on none. At the same time there existed a small body who actively desired greater involvement in committees than they presently have.

Any future organization of the formal Faculty decision-making structure could well consider:

(i) The identification of presently decision-saturated personnel, as measured by excessive involvement in committee structures.

(ii) The identification of presently decision-deprived personnel as measured by lack of involvement in committee structures and a desire for more.

(iii) A re-allocation of committee membership according to such knowledge gained, to reduce the involvement of those wanting this, and to increase the involvement of those presently wanting more.

The study also indicated that differential levels of skill in decision-making existed among faculty. Further, it appeared that knowledge about the structure was less comprehensive among the younger and newer staff members. Even after three years in the Faculty one staff member still professes ignorance of, and lack of involvement in decision structures. This difficulty was recognized by many experienced faculty members, who nevertheless appeared to be unconcerned, and to hold the attitude that they will have to learn by experience (the way we did?). If the concept of faculty involvement in decision-making is judged to be worthwhile then a fourth consideration is raised:

(iv) To what extent can a structure be established which facilitates consistently and equally among all desirous faculty an induction into decision structures, and practice in requisite decision-making skills? Two possibilities for this include a consistent pairing of the inexperienced faculty with one or a group of experienced faculty; and regular and deliberate recognition of all junior faculty in appointment or nomination to committee positions.

2. It was noted in Implications for Research that a level of scepticism existed in relation to the effectiveness of committees. In addition, a large number of respondents indicated a preference for involvement in committees different from those in which they are presently involved. This suggests two points that need consideration:

(i) Does the present structure for allocation of faculty to committees take enough account of the particular preferences of individuals? What structures could be developed to make more effective allowances for such preferences?

(ii) Are committees structured in the best way to make allowance for the existence of expertise in the Faculty? Can an effective support structure be developed to improve the rationality of committee decision-making?

3. One of the major problems identified by the Long Range Planning Committees was the firming of Department boundaries with resulting communication breakdown, and overlapping of courses. This study suggested

that faculty actually seek and establish boundaries within which to limit their involvement. It casts some doubt on whether the breakdown of Department boundaries, as was suggested in some Long Range Planning Committee Reports (1973) , will overcome the existing problems. Although it can only be a matter of prediction, it may be that the response to any establishment of new structures will be a re-establishment of new boundaries by instructors within which to limit their involvement. That is, one set of boundaries, presently seen as inhibiting, will be replaced by another set of boundaries which are equally as inhibiting.

4. The decision area of Financial Planning and Policy proved to be one of concern for most respondents in this study. It was the area which elicited the greatest number of responses indicating decisional deprivation, even though CONSULTATION was the Preferred level chosen most often. Some of the concern rested not only with the lack of involvement, but with a need for the reconsideration of priorities underlying decisions. Administrators believed, however, that this was an area which was so constrained by external influences that it was meaningless to involve faculty. In response to faculty concerns the following consideration emerges:

(i) Is it time to reconsider Financial Planning and Policy less in terms of "what supplies and sundries can be slashed" and more in terms of what restructuring of policies, staffing ratios, rationalization of courses, can occur. Such action should include faculty involvement. Where this is already occurring more effective communication of this fact is necessary.

Implications for Practice Generally

As was indicated previously this research was concerned with one case study, thus adding uncertainty to any generalization to Faculties as a whole. Nevertheless, the study brought into question one of the major assumptions underlying the organization of most Faculty decision-making structures.

Is the concept of participatory decision-making in a Faculty a realistic one?

A number of aspects of participatory decision-making processes as reflected in the structure studied pose questions about the realism of such a concept of governance.

1. From the information offered in this study it appeared that a sizeable proportion of respondents had difficulty in perceiving and therefore in capitalizing upon the real possibilities for their participation. It was suggested in Chapter 2 that among the motivating factors underlying acceptance of participation as a decision-making procedure are decreased alienation; increased involvement in and commitment to an organization; a growing sense of control over bureaucracy; provision of opportunities for individual psychological

growth; and improved quality of decision-making.

If a significant segment do not perceive that there is involvement, or at least that involvement influences outcomes, it is unlikely that the objectives outlined above will be achieved. Further, it would appear that if involvement is perceived but evidence of influence is not, then the reverse may occur.

While problems of perception continue to exist some caution of the value of faculty participation must be exercised.

2. The expectations for FORMAL involvement that faculty hold for participation highlights a major difficulty in the application of the concept. If faculty participation means involvement of all then this assumes either large decision bodies or small representative groups.

Barzun (1968:128) comments on large groups:

> Large bodies cannot readily keep abreast of changing situations. They discuss points at large, forgetting background and ignoring minutiae. They are subject to the misconceptions that take root when many people are gathered together and attention is easily distracted. What centres their ideas is an appeal to familiar principle, moral or professional, which encourages factionalism rather than gets business done. The meetings of school faculties, usually less than a hundred strong, display these characteristics whenever a consequential issue comes up.

This study did not indicate that large groups were as ineffective as indicated above. However, sufficient opinion was tapped to suggest that a wariness does exist regarding the ability of the large group to be an effective decision-making group. One highly placed interviewee put it quite succinctly when he claimed that:

> There is a time when talking has got to stop, and a decision has to be made regardless of conflict still existing. Otherwise nothing would ever get done.

Such recognition of the negative influence of large groups is almost certainly embodied in the decision that led to the delegation of authority from the Faculty of Education Council to the Executive Committee, to prepare the agenda for the regular monthly meeting. Further, the efficiency of the large group in encouraging and maintaining faculty participation in decision-making is brought into doubt by the part played by interest groups and prestige factors. Finally, it is notable that, in this study, attendance at Faculty of Education (large group) meetings varied noticeably compared to that at smaller group meetings such as the Department Staff and Committee meetings, i.e., faculty members failed to use it and probably to perceive it as an effective forum for participation (see Chapter 7).

3. For the small group to operate, and maintain the concept of faculty participation, members must be representatives of faculty as a whole. More important, there must be members of each interest or ideological group in each representative body. There are certain ramifications of this which cast further doubt on the possibilities for participatory decision-making.

(i) The concept of involving all factions in any small group is a near impossibility.

(ii) The existence of numerous factions in any small group almost certainly ensures that outcomes will be compromise decisions.

(iii) The problem of the nature of representative status arises. If the status is that of delegate, where representatives respond as faithfully as they can to the opinions of their group, then perhaps decisions by such a process can reflect the wishes of the large group as a whole. If status is representative in the Edmund Burke (1774:96) sense, where the representative is his own man, independent and not required to reflect the wishes of his group if he judges them inappropriate, it is not necessarily the case that decisions will reflect large group attitudes. In the case studied the status of small group members was generally that of representative rather than delegate. It is unlikely, in fact, that faculty, as members of these groups, would have it otherwise. But it is also likely (as this study showed) that many of the remaining faculty do not regard the representatives as responding accurately to their attitudes and wishes, and thus do not perceive this form of decision-making as participatory.

4. The nature of a Faculty, and of decision-making processes, virtually prohibits decision-making as a process in which all can participate at any given time, or perceive themselves to be participating. This study

indicated that there presently exist perceived "haves" and "have nots" in decision-making in the Faculty. The position could hardly be otherwise.

(i) There are more faculty than committee positions.

(ii) There are more members on Faculty of Education Council than can possibly contribute in the time allowed.

(iii) There are some more skilled than others in the art of contributing.

(iv) There are some whose contributions are judged to be more acceptable and/or worthwhile than those of others. In the words of one interviewee:

> A university is inherently unequal in nature. In a university competence and intellectual output determine privilege. Inequality is institutionalized and becomes legitimized by political processes. Note especially the normative climate of a university which says if you're not competent then you're not equal.

It is reasonable to forecast that this situation exists in most University Faculties, and if not inhibiting faculty participation will certainly impede perception of such participation.

This analysis is not intended to deride the decision-making that has occurred in the specific Faculty of Education studied. Many fine decisions have emerged there, and doubtless many more will. The analysis is intended to demonstrate that in relation to the participation of faculty in decision-making generally:

1. The large group is subject to problems of size, to attention to generality rather than detail, to discussion rather than decision, and to political processes which impede any true and effective participation.

2. The small group suffers the difficulty of attaining representativeness of the large group, of coping with interest groups, of reaching decisions which are likely to be a compromise rather than based in rationality.

3. Many faculty miss out on participation as a result of the sheer magnitude of the task of attempting to involve all; others are unskilled in the art of contributing; still others are viewed as less acceptable contributors.

4. For many, participation is not a reality because a number of factors impede their perceptions of possibility for involvement.

There is a distinct possibility that equally effective rational decisions could emerge from far more streamlined decision procedures, such as conditional decision-making (see Chapter 2) at a lower cost per decision from a manpower and time involvement viewpoint.

However, so long as the collegial decision-making mentality prevails in Universities, and while the thrust for the democratic process of shared deliberations is maintained by a majority, the concept of Faculty involvement will be retained.

This study suggests, however, that it will be retained at the cost of efficiency and rationality in decision-making, and possibly at the cost of ultimate faculty dissatisfaction with decision outcomes.

SUMMARY

In this, the final chapter, the implications of the study for theory, practice and research were discussed. A model of Faculty decision-making based on the impact of decision types and decision outcomes on decision structures and procedures was proposed. A number of organizational, structural and personnel elements which limit the rationality of decision-making in the Faculty were identified. It was suggested that if the processes of decision-making in a Faculty are to be understood it must be in terms of a model which accepts the process as a political one, but which also recognizes the modifying influences of external constraints; the need for facilitative type decisions; the influence of individuals who have authority by virtue of their position in the formal structure; and the collegial mentality which is brought to the decision process by Professors. The need to recognize the influence of perception on attitudes in a study like this was emphasized.

The reports of research and scholarly opinion were compared with the results of the study. It was noted that in many ways results of research in governance at the University level resulted in findings similar to this study at the Faculty level. However, the influence of the level of study was noted to be important, especially in attitudes towards participation. A variety of questions were identified for further research, with the expectation that any definitive answers would assist the refinement of administrative practice.

Finally, a number of implications for practice were identified, both specific for the Faculty studied, and generally for Faculty governance. In particular, the question of the realistic nature of such a concept as faculty participation in decision-making was raised. It was concluded that so long as faculty support the concept of collegiality in Faculty management the style will remain, despite the severe limits to decision rationality it imposes.

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APPENDIX A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

March 25, 1974

Dear Professor,

I am currently enrolled as a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Administration at The University of Alberta. My research project is concerned with Intra-Faculty Participation in Decision-Making, using all academic staff of The Faculty of Education at the University of Alberta as the population.

To assist in data-collection, a questionnaire has been developed which seeks information regarding:

1. Personal data
2. Attitudes regarding participation in faculty decision-making
3. Orientation of instructors to their area of specialization
4. Participation in selected decision-making processes

I would be grateful if you would respond to the attached questionnaire. This should take about twenty minutes. Please place the completed form in the enclosed, addressed envelope.

The number printed on the top left hand corner of page 1 is a code to assist me in identifying questionnaires which have not been returned. It will not be used to match responses to individual respondents, as all responses will be treated as anonymous and confidential.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

L.R. Eastcott

Leslie R. Eastcott

LRE:pk
Encl.

DECISION-MAKING PARTICIPATION SCALE

A Study Conducted by

LESLIE R. EASTCOTT

Department of Educational Administration

The University of Alberta

1974

PART A

Please check (√) the appropriate answer.

1. Department in Faculty (Note: If you have a joint appointment please check that department in which you spend most of your teaching time.)

   Elementary Education ☐
   Secondary Education ☐
   Educational Foundations ☐
   Educational Administration ☐
   Educational Psychology ☐
   Industrial and Vocational Education ☐

2. Employment Status

   Professor ☐
   Associate Professor ☐
   Assistant Professor ☐
   Lecturer ☐

3. Rank

   Administrator: i.e. Dean, Associate Dean, Department Chairman or Co-ordinator ☐
   Instructor: i.e. Assistant Dean, or instructional staff ☐

4. Your Sex

   Male ☐
   Female ☐

5. Your Age Please state your age as on March 1, 1974:

< 25 ☐
26 - 30 ☐
31 - 35 ☐
36 - 40 ☐
41 - 45 ☐
46 - 50 ☐
51 - 55 ☐
56 - 60 ☐
> 60 ☐

6. Academic Qualifications (Indicate highest level attained)

Bachelor's degree ☐
Master's degree ☐
Ph.D. or Ed.D. ☐

7. Years Employed at The University of Alberta

(Count this present year as a full year.)

For how many years have you been employed as a member of the academic staff of The University of Alberta? ☐

PART B

In the first column, indicate (✓) what you perceive to be the CURRENT extent of instructor participation in the stated decision area. Each category is defined at the top of the questionnaire.

In the second column, indicate (✓) the extent of instructor participation that you would PREFER instructors, as individuals or in groups, to have in decision-making in the stated decision area. Each category is defined at the top of the questionnaire.

The first item has been completed as an example. For the item, "Choosing clerical staff", the current perceived extent is None, therefore a check (✓) is placed in this column. The preferred extent is Discussion and therefore a check (✓) is placed in this column.

Determination -- instructors, as individuals or in groups, have total authority with respect to policy and action.

Joint Action -- instructors and other components of the institution, especially the administration, together reach formal agreement on policy and action.

Consultation -- a formal procedure providing a means for instructors to present their judgment in the form of a recommendation, e.g., a recommendation from a staff meeting.

Discussion -- informal expression of opinion from instructors.

None -- no instructor participation.

	CURRENT					PREFERRED				
	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None
SAMPLE ITEM										
Choosing clerical staff.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☑	☐	☐	☐	☑	☐
FACULTY RECRUITMENT										
1. Appointment of faculty dean.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Appointment of all department chairmen within the faculty who are outside your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Appointment of your department chairman.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Appointment of other administrative staff (e.g., director of division, and associate and assistant deans.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	CURRENT 5 Determination	CURRENT 4 Joint Action	CURRENT 3 Consultation	CURRENT 2 Discussion	CURRENT 1 None	PREFERRED 5 Determination	PREFERRED 4 Joint Action	PREFERRED 3 Consultation	PREFERRED 2 Discussion	PREFERRED 1 None
5. Appointment of all teaching staff in the faculty who are outside your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Appointment of teaching staff in your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

FACULTY STATUS

	CURRENT 5 Determination	CURRENT 4 Joint Action	CURRENT 3 Consultation	CURRENT 2 Discussion	CURRENT 1 None	PREFERRED 5 Determination	PREFERRED 4 Joint Action	PREFERRED 3 Consultation	PREFERRED 2 Discussion	PREFERRED 1 None
7. Promotions outside your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Promotions within your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Dismissal of staff.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Evaluation and retention of probationary faculty within your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Evaluation of instruction in your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Evaluation of other instructors.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ACADEMIC PLANNING AND POLICY

	CURRENT 5 Determination	CURRENT 4 Joint Action	CURRENT 3 Consultation	CURRENT 2 Discussion	CURRENT 1 None	PREFERRED 5 Determination	PREFERRED 4 Joint Action	PREFERRED 3 Consultation	PREFERRED 2 Discussion	PREFERRED 1 None
13. Deciding the nature of courses and programs to be offered in your department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Deciding the nature of courses and programs to be offered in other departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Determining faculty admission requirements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Planning for and development of Faculty Library resources.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	CURRENT					PREFERRED				
	Determination 5	Joint Action 4	Consultation 3	Discussion 2	None 1	Determination 5	Joint Action 4	Consultation 3	Discussion 2	None 1
17. Planning for and organization of audiovisual equipment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Acquiring and allocation of funds for research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Planning for new or additional physical facilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Determining numbers of staff of various departments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
ACADEMIC OPERATIONS										
21. Allocation of students to classes within your own department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Determination of class sizes within your own department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Allocation of teaching assignments within your own department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Determination of an instructor's allocated teaching hours within your own department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Establishment of the schedule and timetable for classes you instruct.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Choice of classroom instructional practices within your own department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Determination of course pre-requisites.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Development of procedures for evaluation of students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	CURRENT					PREFERRED				
	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None
FINANCIAL PLANNING AND POLICY										
29. Financial allocation for secretarial services.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Financial allocation for instructional equipment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. Financial allocation for supplies and sundries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. Short range budgetary planning within the Faculty of Education (1 - 3 years).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. Long range budgetary planning within the Faculty of Education (beyond 3 years).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Short range budgetary planning within your department (1 - 3 years).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Long range budgetary planning within your department (beyond 3 years).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
INTRA-FACULTY ORGANIZATION										
36. Modification of the Faculty of Education administrative structure.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Establishment of department committees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. Establishment of Faculty of Education committees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Appointment of staff to department committees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Appointment of staff to Faculty of Education committees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	CURRENT					PREFERRED				
	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None
41. The establishment of rules, regulations and disciplinary procedures for the student body within the faculty.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Determination of the student role in the Department governance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

FACULTY ENVIRONMENT INTERACTION

	CURRENT					PREFERRED				
	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None	5 Determination	4 Joint Action	3 Consultation	2 Discussion	1 None
44. Development of Faculty service activities to the community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. Establishment of procedures for communicating relevant Faculty information to the community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. Preparation of written materials for publication by the Faculty of Education, or your department, e.g. information for prospective students.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. Provision of inservice education for personnel outside the University.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. Procedures for attracting students to programs offered by the Faculty of Education.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. Seeking funding from outside agencies to expand the instructional, research and service functions of the Faculty of Education.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
50. Instructor participation in service activities outside the University, e.g. consultation, participation in and organization of conferences, editorship of journals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART C

1. The listed groups judge the quality of your overall performance. Place a check (✓) in the most important column beside those you regard as most important. Place a check (✓) in the important column for others regarded as important. Check only those regarded as most important or important.

	Most Important	Important
Students		
Administration (other than department chairman)		
Department chairman		
Colleagues in own department (other than department chairman)		
Members of one's community of scholars		
Community leaders active in educational affairs		

2. What are the most desirable aspects of your employment as a university staff member?

3. Generally speaking, how do you read your important professional journals?

Thoroughly ☐
Partially ☐ (Check one)
Glance through them ☐

4. Suppose that your teaching allocations were to be reduced by three hours per week. Indicate (✓) the areas in which you would like to spend more time.

	Most Important	Important
On research		
On preparation for teaching		
On committee work		
On preparation of publications		
On administrative tasks for which you are responsible		
On attendance at department and/or faculty meetings		
Other (explain)		

PART D

1. Write in the names of committees of which you are a member in each administrative unit.

(i) Department committees

1 ____________________

2 ____________________

3 ____________________

4 ____________________

5 ____________________

(ii) Faculty of Education committees, e.g., Faculty *ad hoc*, and standing committees.

1 ____________________

2 ____________________

3 ____________________

4 ____________________

5 ____________________

(iii) University established committees, e.g., General Faculty Council.

1 ____________________

2 ____________________

3 ____________________

4 ____________________

5 ____________________

(iv) Provincial, National and International Organizations or Committees

1 ______________________________

2 ______________________________

3 ______________________________

4 ______________________________

5 ______________________________

2. My percentage attendance at each of the following meetings is:

	1 < 20%	2 21-40%	3 41-60%	4 61-80%	5 81-100%
(i) Faculty of Education Council Meetings.					
(ii) Faculty committee meetings on which I am a representative.					
(iii) Department meetings.					
(iv) Department committee meetings on which I am a representative.					
(v) University established committee meetings.					

3. The number of committees on which I would like to be a member is:

Fewer than at present ☐

The same as at present ☐

More than at present ☐

4. The time I would like to spend in committee meetings is:

   Less than at present ☐

   The same as at present ☐

   More than at present ☐

5. The type of committees on which I would like to be a member is:

   The same as at present ☐

   Different than at present ☐

6. Check (✓) all responses with which you agree.

   My level of participation in staff and committee meetings is determined by my belief that, for the majority of meetings:

   (i) They take too much time from research. ☐

   (ii) They waste too much time on inconsequential matters. ☐

   (iii) They take too much time from teaching and teaching preparation. ☐

   (iv) They are essential for the smooth functioning of faculty and department. ☐

   (v) It is my personal duty to participate. ☐

   (vi) It is necessary to protect my interests. ☐

   (vii) It brings influence I otherwise would not have. ☐

   (viii) It is a factor in promotion and salary increment. ☐

   (ix) I personally enjoy them. ☐

   (x) It is expected of faculty. ☐

   (xi) It is an avenue to improving research. ☐

(xii) It is an avenue to improving teaching. ☐

(xiii) These meetings only legitimize decisions already taken by the administration. ☐

(xiv) Faculty members' ideas and opinions are not really valued. ☐

(xv) Other (please specify). ☐

Please quickly check to see if you have responded to all items.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

APPENDIX B

CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTIONS BY SUB-SYSTEM FUNCTIONING

CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTIONS
BY SUB-SYSTEM FUNCTIONING

Category	Question Number
1. Productive	15, 16, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31
2. Maintenance	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 34, 35, 36, 37, 39
3. Adaptive	13, 14, 17, 18, 22, 23, 32, 33, 38, 40
4. Managerial	41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48
5. Reward and Sanction	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
6. Supportive	19, 20, 21, 49, 50

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Please describe the type of decision-making structure you have in this Department.

2. What are your personal feelings about the role of the instructor in intra-faculty decision-making?

3. What limits do you see to the extent of instructor participation? That is, in what areas of intra-faculty decision-making should instructors not have a role? Why?

4. What motives move instructors to participate in decision-making?

5. What do you see as the major impediments to instructor decisional participation?

6. What are the major characteristics of people involved in Faculty decision-making?

7. Based on your observations, would you say that in practice all members of the Faculty have equal opportunity to participate in decision-making?

APPENDIX D

TOTAL CURRENT AND PREFERRED LEVELS OF INSTRUCTOR INVOLVEMENT

TOTAL CURRENT AND PREFERRED LEVELS OF INSTRUCTOR INVOLVEMENT

Category	CURRENT				
	NONE	DISC.	CONS.	JOINT ACTION	DET.
Faculty Recruitment	42.83	18.84	16.5	20.5	1.33
Faculty Status	59.0	16.67	8.33	14.17	1.83
Academic Planning & Policy	23.12	25.5	24.0	21.63	5.75
Academic Operations	14.5	22.63	15.38	24.87	22.62
Financial Planning & Policy	38.71	32.86	16.43	10.86	1.14
Intra-Faculty Organization	13.72	22.71	22.14	30.43	11.0
Faculty-Environment Interaction	24.86	29.43	13.29	15.42	17.0
Total	29.66	24.35	16.87	19.94	9.18

Category	PREFERRED				
	NONE	DISC.	CONS.	JOINT ACTION	DET.
Faculty Recruitment	18.5	19.33	26.17	28.83	7.17
Faculty Status	27.3	19.34	21.68	26.5	5.18
Academic Planning & Policy	6.5	15.12	34.37	36.12	7.89
Academic Operations	4.0	13.00	21.62	35.63	25.75
Financial Planning & Policy	8.43	22.86	37.14	29.87	1.70
Intra-Faculty Organization	5.28	13.14	26.14	43.87	11.57
Faculty-Environment Interaction	6.57	18.57	30.14	30.72	14.0
Total	10.23	7.12	28.34	33.41	10.9

APPENDIX E

MULTIPLE DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS

MULTIPLE DISCRIMINANT FUNCTIONS:
SCALED WEIGHTS FOR VECTORS CONTRIBUTING
MORE THAN 80% OF TOTAL VARIANCE

1. Department

SCALED WEIGHTS

	VECTORS		
	1	2	3
1	-15.73407	25.55505	7.39946
2	17.90286	-14.40264	1.41146
3	-19.44948	15.40252	22.74442
4	40.58661	-10.76019	7.84149
5	- 6.28768	- 8.46846	-33.37226
6	0.73099	10.81365	- 7.22021
7	5.74027	- 5.41438	1.53180
8	3.68013	-12.50989	- 6.16918
9	-19.08348	-15.55692	- 1.11474
10	- 3.03554	4.88415	1.67804
11	- 0.81720	- 4.23351	2.21536
12	- 0.57717	- 2.82515	- 5.34690
13	- 2.23279	20.56514	9.23819
14	13.68119	5.46109	-24.18741

2. Rank

SCALED WEIGHTS

	VECTOR 1
1	17.19440
2	3.16620
3	- 9.62477
4	- 6.31605
5	20.99428
6	-12.06068
7	5.75787
8	- 5.61480
9	-22.57843
10	15.13577
11	7 7.46593
12	-15.87046
13	20.82420
14	-10.27571

3. Sex

SCALED WEIGHTS

	VECTOR 1
1	14.62817
2	13.45116
3	-12.76190
4	-18.23289
5	3.21954
6	- 5.90451
7	19.27834
8	-10.38537
9	-16.02484
10	5.14025
11	2.71344
12	-17.95116
13	31.85695
14	0.65843

4. Employment Status

SCALED WEIGHTS

	VECTOR 1
1	-19.99323
2	- 9.62520
3	4.33940
4	16.17032
5	-12.47453
6	23.20570
7	-21.80055
8	5.41724
9	- 5.48016
10	-13.17744
11	0.45688
12	7.96223
13	-10.27915
14	22.56161

Key

1	Current Faculty Recruitment
2	Current Faculty Status
3	Current Academic Planning and Policy
4	Current Academic Operations
5	Current Financial Planning and Policy
6	Current Intra-Faculty Organization
7	Current Faculty-Environment Interaction
8	Preferred Faculty Recruitment
9	Preferred Faculty Status
10	Preferred Academic Planning and Policy
11	Preferred Academic Operations
12	Preferred Financial Planning and Policy
13	Preferred Intra-Faculty Organization
14	Preferred Faculty-Environment Interaction

APPENDIX F

CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS BY DEPARTMENT FOCUS

CLASSIFICATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

ITEMS BY DEPARTMENT FOCUS

In-Department Questions

3 Appointment of your Department Chairman
6 Appointment of teaching staff in your Department
8 Promotions within your Department
10 Evaluation and retention of probationary faculty within your Department
11 Evaluation of instruction within your Department
13 Deciding the nature of courses and programs to be offered in your Department
21 Allocation of students to classes within your own Department
22 Determination of class sizes within your own Department
23 Allocation of teaching assignments within your own Department
24 Determination of an instructor's allocated teaching hours within your own Department
25 Establishment of the schedule and timetable for classes you instruct
26 Choice of classroom instructional practices within your own Department
28 Development of procedures for evaluation of students
37 Establishment of Department committees
39 Appointment of staff to Department committees

Out-of-Department Questions

2 Appointment of all Department Chairmen within the Faculty who are outside your Department
4 Appointment of other administrative staff, e.g., Director of Division and Associate and Assistant Deans
5 Appointment of all teaching staff in the Faculty who are outside your Department
7 Promotions outside your Department
14 Deciding the nature of courses and programs to be offered in other Departments
20 Determining numbers of staff of various Departments

APPENDIX G

CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENTS

CORRELATION CO-EFFICIENTS: DISCIPLINE-ORIENTATION AND PREFERRED RESPONSES ON INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

Item	Co-efficient	Item	Co-efficient
1	.20	26	.06
2	.04	27	.10
3	.01	28	-.04
4	.09	29	.00
5	.13	30	-.08
6	.24	31	-.01
7	.20	32	.01
8	.20	33	.07
9	.17	34	.06
10	.14	35	.03
11	.08	36	.08
12	.17	37	-.05
13	.03	38	-.02
14	.04	39	.03
15	.09	40	.04
16	.04	41	-.01
17	-.23	42	.04
18	.03	44	.16
19	.04	45	.06
20	.00	46	.03
21	.03	47	.03
22	.00	48	.07
23	.05	49	.16
24	.18	50	.14
25	-.11		